

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

SINCE last July a project looking "Toward More Effective Education for Civic Responsibility"¹ has been in progress under the auspices of The Educational Policies Commission. The enterprise, financially supported by the General Education Board, grows out of one of the chief interests of the Commission.

"There can be little doubt," declares the Commission, "that a ferment is at work in American education—an uneasy questioning of the present situation, an awareness of the urgent necessity for a new citizenship education, an eager desire to bring a better program to fruition." The Commission accordingly proposes to advance the development in young people of "an intelligent, appreciative, and active loyalty to democracy," involving "the application of the principles, processes, and values of democracy to the affairs of everyday life."

Aware that civic responsibility has been accepted as a major purpose of American education, the Commission is driven to the conclusion that "practice, however, lags discouragingly behind the accepted philosophy"—a judgment supported by Howard E. Wilson's New York State findings, reported a year ago in *Education for Citizenship*.

ONE necessity is the identification of "the ingredients of loyalty to democracy." The Commission suggests tentatively that twelve concepts would need to be

taken into account in compiling a list: free speech, a free press, freedom of religion, freedom of petition and assembly, an untrammelled ballot, respect for individuals and minorities, peaceful change, equal opportunity, equal justice under law, representative government, general welfare above special privilege, and an educated electorate.

THE Commission also suggests eleven school activities and processes representative of those through which the schools might advance civic responsibility:

1. Methods of teaching which are, in themselves, experiences in democracy.
2. Courses in the social studies which promote understanding of American democracy and of the responsibilities of citizens.
3. Extracurricular activities contributing significantly to the civic growth of pupils.
4. Responsible pupil participation in school management.
5. First-hand study of institutions of government, civic agencies, and social conditions in the community.
6. Study of methods of propaganda analysis.
7. Use of radio and films as aids in civic education.
8. Cooperation of schools with out-of-school civic agencies.
9. Participation of school youth in socially useful community enterprises.
10. Forums for the discussion of current public issues.
11. Evaluating the outcomes of education in terms of conduct and attitudes related to citizenship.

¹ See a leaflet so entitled, published by the Educational Policies Commission in August, and a news note in *Social Education* for November (p. 581).

A staff of six educators is now at work on investigations and analyses of better practices in a few selected schools, from which will be developed a "case book" that should stimulate and aid American administrators and teachers.

FEW will question the urgent need for competent and systematic consideration of education for political citizenship—which in this country means democratic citizenship. It is pertinent to inquire, however, why with all our interest in citizenship education—with all our courses in civics and history and problems of democracy, and our attention to current events—there is so much dissatisfaction with our accomplishment.

ONE very obvious requirement in the school program is teaching about political citizenship—about the purposes, nature, and operation of government, about increasingly numerous and complex political, economic, and social problems, and related development in the past and in our own day. Effective democracy requires an informed electorate.

We are increasingly conscious of the fact that graduates of our schools are not well informed. The fault may lie in the curriculum, but that has been continuously modified in an effort to make it "functional" and concerned with what informed citizens ought to know. The fault may lie in teaching methods, though again these have been carefully considered and reconsidered, with constant modification in recent years. Part of the difficulty undoubtedly lies in the increasingly heterogeneous character of the school population, the influx of a large number of "non-readers" with little aptitude for the theoretical and abstract information and ideas that ideally ought to be part of the citizen's background. We have by no means solved the problems that arise from efforts to adapt subject matter and procedures to the varied needs and abilities of the present school population. Both the intellectually gifted and the "non-

academic" pupils have suffered as the school program has been directed, not too satisfactorily, towards the great middle group.

PART of the difficulty no doubt lies in the fact that in the rapid growth of the school population and the expansion of the school program it has not been possible to select and train the teaching personnel adequately. Teachers lacking in special competence have often been assigned to social studies classes. Teaching has often been, and often is, uninformed, perfunctory, and unrealistic. Few teachers have had access to professional aids, either on the side of scholarship or classroom procedures, necessary to fresh and stimulating leadership. As the responsibilities of teachers continue to increase, the possibilities of developing and maintaining such leadership certainly grow no greater. Yet in these critical times the need for an informed electorate is greater than ever.

CIVIC responsibility, however, involves more than information and understanding, essential as these are. Attitudes and skills, habits and conduct, are also of major importance. Attitudes and conduct have not always been the responsibility of teachers. Home training, newspapers, activities of political organizations, and early family and economic responsibilities long took care of a type of education now assigned to the schools.

The responsibility is hard to discharge, especially within the limited time at the disposal of schools and in the face of powerful negative forces often encountered in underprivileged areas, in some movies, radio programs, and newspapers, perhaps in the relaxed disciplines and controls of church, home, and school, and especially with the depression emergence of a youth problem. We realize the importance of democratic procedures, of maximum pupil responsibility in class and school activities and in community affairs, and we recognize the importance of youth organizations, of churches, summer camps, and organizations such as

the CCC. Yet the resources of the schools and of all their allies seem scarcely equal to the overwhelming demand for developing this aspect of civic responsibility.

ONE further development may be pertinent. Although the Committee on the Social Studies in its influential 1916 report stressed the citizenship objective heavily, the Commission on the Social Studies, nearly twenty years later, emphasized the even wider objective of "rich and many-sided personalities."

Personal growth and adjustment have occupied an increasingly important position in the school program. So they ought, but they have sometimes been substituted for part of the program for developing political citizenship. The two are not unrelated, especially in the area of attitudes and conduct, but perhaps it is in order to suggest that the effort to develop an informed citizenry must not be relaxed or diminished in this period of crisis for democracy.

MEANWHILE, conscious of both needs and difficulties, we look forward with interest and hope to the guidance that the Educational Policies Commission hopes to provide through the investigation now in progress.

ERLING M. HUNT

PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING

THE teachers of the social studies recognize that back of their teaching and their relations with the pupils, and back of the subject matter and classroom activities, there is a common philosophy or purpose. This philosophy differs little from that of education in general. The social studies are thought of as comprehending the social, economic, and political relationships and phases of living, and their scope, therefore, is almost as broad as life itself. Helping the pupil to achieve self-realization through these studies and activities in connection with them, and helping him to understand and appreciate the desirability of finding a worthy place for himself in an interdepend-

ent social, economic, and political world are tasks which the philosophy in teaching the social studies imposes on the teachers of those studies. It is our belief, therefore, that if a pupil is to find and rightly understand his own worthy place in society—

1. He will need to know and understand something of the social, economic, and political conditions under which people now live. The development of this understanding is a lifelong process, but the social studies can make definite contributions to it. The process begins in the small circle of home interests, extends outward to the community, and still farther outward in ever-widening horizons until the whole civilized world is encompassed. Thus the pupil gradually becomes aware of the interdependence of peoples, sees some of the more important of their multifarious relations, and becomes familiar with some of the environmental factors conditioning these relations.

2. He will need some knowledge of the organization of society as that organization is viewed in its process of development. He will need to understand the continuity of social processes and change, to think of things as "eternally becoming," to see sequential and causal relationships, and to see that the problems and conditions of the present are outgrowths of problems and conditions people have attempted to solve or have met in the past. He will, that is, need to see what changes and developments human endeavor has already brought about, and will need to realize that many of these changes and developments will continue through the present and on indefinitely into the future. Thus, by acquiring the long view of man's progress, our present civilization will appear to him in its proper perspective.

3. He must, through the development of his personality and character and through self-improvement along many lines, be helped to adjust himself to desirable forms of social living, experience the satisfactions which result from serving and sharing suc-

cessfully and cooperatively in worthy group activities, and be brought to accept a wholesome, democratic philosophy of life.

4. He must learn to think independently, recognize propaganda and deviations from the truth, and through the careful sifting of evidence and logical reasoning, arrive at valid conclusions. He must not only recognize whether his own tenets are valid, but must be able to see whether there is validity in the tenets of others, giving due respect always to their considered opinions and beliefs.

5. He must be helped to an appreciation of the good, the noble, and the beautiful in man's actions and achievements, be helped to maintain a "hopeful optimism," and both by precept and example must be led to a richer way of life.

O. W. STEPHENSON

University of Michigan

MEMORANDUM ON THE WAR

ALL classroom teachers must be conscious of the persistent and disquieting problems that arise in social studies classes during war time. When the following memorandum from the director of social studies in Brookline, Massachusetts, was called to our attention we requested permission to print it, as a balanced and realistic statement on a question that has no easy answer.

EDITOR

THAT Europe is again at war is a matter of concern to all Americans and particularly to teachers of the social studies. Your pupils will want to discuss the war, as will you. That is as it should be, but it creates a serious problem for the teacher of the social studies. This problem has so many facets that it is difficult to know which are the most important.

It is, first of all, vitally necessary to keep in mind, among other matters, the fact that the United States is officially neutral. To maintain that neutrality will probably be extremely difficult. In the two previous world wars of the past century and a quarter, we found ourselves unable to hew to the

line of planned neutrality. Although in the present crisis the President has asked no American to remain neutral in thought, I believe that as teachers of the social studies we must be extremely careful that we in no way fan the flames of hatred that may drag this country into the conflict. We should, it seems to me, discuss the war in terms of the greatest possible objectivity. That, too, will be very difficult, for propaganda is rife, and we are told that much if not all of our foreign news is censored. Contradictions follow contradictions with such rapidity that one is at a loss to distinguish truth from falsehood, if the truth prevails in any quarter. If the sources of our information are polluted, it is obvious that we must discuss the war with all the qualifications known to a person trained in the social sciences. It goes without saying that all emotion is voluntarily ruled out, if one—pupil or teacher—is to be objective.

It is with reluctance that I write this memorandum, but as I understand my responsibility I have no alternative. Reluctance, I should add, only because there is the possibility that some of my associates may consider this an official injunction against freedom of speech. If there be such, I ask for a more charitable interpretation. I have no desire to infringe upon academic freedom, but I have the duty to point out that we must use our freedom as social studies teachers with more than ordinary care. The peace of this country is, I believe, in the balance. If it goes, it is reasonable to assume that freedom of speech and many other liberties we associate with the democratic way of life will also be temporarily in abeyance. At any rate, so they were in the Civil War under Lincoln and in the last World War under Wilson.

As moulders of public opinion, we have a very grave responsibility to do all we can to keep this country at peace. I have every confidence that the social studies teachers of Brookline recognize fully the responsibility confronting them in the classroom at this time.

TYLER KEPNER

The Sesquicentennial of Our Bill of Rights

LEILA R. CUSTARD

THE period designated for the celebration of the sesquicentennial of the Constitution of the United States came to a close on April 30, 1939. In deference to historical accuracy and considerations of sentiment, however, the observance ought not to have terminated until September 25, 1939, or, more properly, March 1, 1942. For to many of the best thinkers of a century and a half ago, no constitution was an adequate or even safe instrument for the guidance of a people's political life unless it included a bill of rights.

Virginia's ratification of the first ten amendments, on December 15, 1791, completed the required number of assents—eleven, since, with Vermont, there were now fourteen states—but it was not until March 1, 1792, that the Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson, certified that a sufficient number of states had approved, and announced the adoption of our national bill of rights.

ORDINANCE OF 1787

ONLY two months before the new Constitution had come into their hands they had witnessed a most notable example of this precaution. On July 13, 1787, when the constitutional convention was about

half way through its work, the Congress of the Confederation had passed the great Ordinance of 1787 for the governing of the Northwest Territory. In this splendid piece of legislation Congress sketched the future American colonial and state policy with as much assurance as if they had been under a mandate from the people in their sovereign capacity. Following familiar precedent, they had constituted about half of the Ordinance a bill of rights, prefacing these provisions with an explanation which reads:

And for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon these republics, their laws and constitutions, are erected; to fix and establish those principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions, and governments, which forever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory; to provide, also, for the establishment of States, and permanent governments therein, and for their admission to a share in the Federal councils on an equal footing with the original States, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest:

It is hereby ordained and declared, by the authority aforesaid, that the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact, between the original States and the people and States in the said territory, and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent. . . .¹

Some eighteen guarantees of fundamental liberties follow.

OMISSION FROM THE CONSTITUTION

YET, when the new frame of government for the people who constituted the original states was presented for their approval or disapproval, it contained no bill of rights. True there were scattered throughout its articles sixteen clauses containing provisions similar to those usually included in basic

Civil rights and their guarantees are of obvious importance in an age of totalitarian states and in time of war. Dr Custard is an instructor in Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey.

¹ F. N. Thorpe, ed., *The Federal and State Constitutions, Colonial Charters and Other Organic Laws*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1906. Vol. II, p. 960.

specifications of government. Among them were prohibitions on both state and federal government of *ex post facto* laws, bills of attainder, and the granting of titles of nobility. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* might not be suspended unless the public safety required it. Trial of all crimes except cases of impeachment was to be by jury, and held in the state where committed. Treason was defined, and limitations were placed upon evidence necessary to convict for treason. Congress might provide for its punishment, but corruption of blood and forfeiture of estate were forbidden, except for the life of the person attainted. No religious test as a qualification for office was allowed. Immunity was guaranteed to legislators for any speech or debate in either house.

This, however, had never been the manner of achieving the protection of the rights of the individual against encroachment by the very government they were creating. Always these declarations had stood in a solid phalanx either at the beginning or at the end of the document, and under a distinguishing caption or a proclamation such as had been used in the Ordinance of 1787. Besides, many of the most precious personal liberties had not been mentioned anywhere.

SOME of the best legal minds endorsed the proposed constitution as it was, and presented reasons why no treatment of individual rights had been thought necessary. A few of the leading spirits in the convention, too, were ready to explain the attitude of the framers. This is fortunate for present-day inquirers, since there is little to be gleaned from Madison's *Notes* of the proceedings of the convention, which indicate that the subject had received very scant and summary consideration.

Madison recorded that Mr Pinkney (by whom he meant Charles Pinckney of South Carolina) on August 20 submitted a number of propositions, and quoted them in full. They were nowhere referred to as a bill of rights, but they contained several of the most

important bill-of-rights principles. Among them were: adequate guarantee of the privilege of *habeas corpus*; liberty of the press; the familiar military safeguards, which place the military always in subordination to the civil power, and forbid the keeping of troops of war in time of peace and the quartering of soldiers in any house without consent of the owner; and the banning of religious tests or qualifications. According to Madison, these propositions were referred to the committee on detail without debate or consideration by the house, and thus dropped completely out of sight.

It was not until September 12—five days before adjournment—that the question of including a bill of rights was presented to the convention. It arose in connection with the discussion of trial by jury. Elbridge Gerry had been urging the necessity of juries to guard against corrupt judges. George Mason replied that a general principle on this and some other points would be sufficient, and expressed a wish that the plan had been prefaced with a bill of rights, saying that he would second a motion to that effect. He added: "It would give great quiet to the people; and with the aid of the State declarations, a bill might be prepared in a few hours." Gerry then moved for a committee to prepare a bill of rights, and Mason, author of the famous Virginia Bill of Rights, seconded the motion. In the brief debate Roger Sherman agreed that the rights of the people should be secured where requisite, but thought that the state declarations, being still in force, would be sufficient. Mason replied that the laws of the United States were to be paramount to state bills of rights.² Without further discussion the motion was unanimously negatived—ten states voting against it, with the Massachusetts delegates absent and New York not represented by a quorum at the time.

² C. C. Tansill, ed. *Documents Illustrative of the Formation of the Union of the American States*, "Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787 as Reported by James Madison." Washington: Government Printing Office, 1927, p. 716.

EVEN before the proposed constitution had been given to the public, Richard Henry Lee had arisen in the Congress of the Confederation, to ask: "Where is the contract between the nation and the government? The constitution makes mention only of those who govern, and nowhere speaks of the rights of the people who are governed." He proposed to qualify the power of the government by a bill of rights, but technical difficulties about ratification of amendments proposed by the Congress—of sufficiently recent and painful memory to warn against repetition—prevented the admission of these suggested improvements. He next avowed his wish "that such amendments as would give security to the rights of human nature and the discordant interests of the different parts of this union might employ another convention."³ Fortunately, as we see it now, he was overruled.

This was but the beginning of expressions of dissatisfaction with the proposed instrument because of its failure to safeguard the people's rights, and this lack became a serious obstacle to ratification. In fact, the omission of a bill of rights was the strongest argument against the proposed constitution.

DEMANDS FOR AMENDMENT

THROUGH many succeeding months the country rang with debate. If anyone had previously been ignorant of the real purpose and intent of bills of rights, he was now speedily informed. They basked in the sunshine of publicity, even propaganda as the leading thinkers were ranged on one side or the other of this all-absorbing controversy.

Though they had been outvoted in the convention, Gerry and Mason, later joined by Randolph, in post-convention days became ardent agitators for the addition of a bill of rights. They had refused to sign the Constitution, and each formally stated the

lack of a bill of rights as one of his reasons. In this they were backed by leaders who had not been members of the convention. Patrick Henry argued stoutly in behalf of "those valuable, inestimable rights and privileges which no people inspired with the least glow of patriotic liberty ever did, or ever can, abandon." Similarly Thomas Jefferson wrote to Madison: "A Bill of Rights is what the people are entitled to against every government on earth, general or particular."⁴

It was in the state ratifying conventions that the matter was threshed out most thoroughly, whence it was given extension to the populace in public speeches and in newspaper articles by the leading members. From the Pennsylvania convention radiated the most heated disputes, and many of the most representative opinions on both sides were expressed there and given publicity in the Philadelphia papers. Here it was that Doctor Benjamin Rush thus summarized the absurdity with which the whole discussion impressed him:

Civilians having taught us that occupancy was the origin of property, I think it may likewise be considered as the origin of liberty; and as we enjoy all our natural rights from a pre-occupancy, antecedent to the social state, whence shall they be said to be derived? Would it not be absurd to frame a formal declaration that our natural rights are acquired from ourselves? And would it not be a more ridiculous solecism to say, that they are the gift of those rulers whom we have created, and who are invested by us with every power they possess? Sir, I consider it an honor to the late convention that this system has not been disgraced with a Bill of Rights, though I mean not to blame or reflect upon those states which have encumbered their constitutions with that idle and superfluous instrument.⁵

A citizen of Pennsylvania, writing in the *Pennsylvania Packet* of October 12, 1787, based his argument against bills of rights on a different theory. He contended that while the people were quite right to include declarations of rights in their state constitutions, nevertheless:

In articles of agreement among a number of independent states, entering into a union, a bill of the rights of in-

⁴C. C. Warren, *Congress, the Constitution and the Supreme Court*. Boston: Little Brown, 1935, p. 80.

⁵J. B. McMaster and F. R. Stone, eds., *Pennsylvania and the Federal Constitution, 1787-1788*. Lancaster: Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1888, p. 295.

³Quoted in George Bancroft, *History of the United States*. New York: Appleton Century, 1887, vol. VI, 372, 376.

dividuals is *excluded* of course. As in the old confederation or compact among the thirteen independent sovereignties of America, no bill of rights of individuals could be or was introduced; so in the proposed compact among the same thirteen independent sovereignties, no bill of the rights of individuals has been or could be introduced. This would be to annihilate our state constitutions by rendering them unnecessary.

Taking liberty of the press as a typical right, he asked:

But who is to destroy it? Not the people at large, for it is their most invaluable privilege—the palladium of their happiness. Not the state legislature, for their respective constitutions forbid them to infringe it. Not the federal government, for they have never had it transferred into their hands. It remains amongst those rights not conveyed to them. But who are the federal government that they should take away the freedom of the press was it not out of their reach? Are they not the temporary responsible servants of the people? How then is this favorite inestimable privilege in danger?⁷

THUS ran the argument from state sovereignty. On the other hand, some believers in popular sovereignty who rejected this contention still maintained that no bill of rights was necessary. Said James Wilson, Pennsylvania's most brilliant legal mind, one of the three or four most important leaders in the convention, and the strongest champion of the Constitution in the ratifying convention of his state:

Were the states sovereign, doling out to the people such rights as the people could exact, the need of such a bill would indeed have been great. But they were not sovereign, they possessed no power not given. What reason was there then for the people to demand that they should be left secure in the enjoyment of their sovereign, undelegated powers? . . .

For it would have been superfluous and absurd to have stipulated with a federal body of our own creation, that we should enjoy those privileges of which we are not divested, either by the intention or the act which has brought the body into existence.

To Wilson's mind, the objection of those who wished for a bill of rights were thus amply answered. But to make doubly sure, he quoted the preamble of the Constitution and declared: "This single sentence in the preamble is tantamount to a volume, and contains the essence of all the bills of rights that have been or can be devised."

Wilson even saw actual danger in a bill of rights. For, he asked:

Who will be bold enough to undertake to enumerate all the rights of the people—and when the attempt to enumerate them is made, it must be remembered that

if the enumeration is not complete, everything not expressly mentioned will be presumed to be purposely omitted. So it must be with a Bill of Rights and an omission in stating the powers granted to the government is not so dangerous as an omission in recapitulating the rights reserved by the people.⁸

SIMILARLY *The Federalist* registered no enthusiasm for a bill of rights. The essays that bear on the subject, probably written by Hamilton, referred to them as aphorisms which would sound better in a treatise on ethics than in a constitution.⁸ Like Wilson, Hamilton found them superfluous, since "the people surrender nothing; and as they retain everything, they have no need of particular reservations." He too considered them dangerous for reasons that parallel Wilson's,⁹ and he urged that the constitution of each state in America is its bill of rights.

Another very cogent and practical argument was expressed by Cotesworth Pinckney in the South Carolina ratifying convention.

By delegating express powers, we certainly reserve to ourselves every power and right not mentioned in the Constitution. Another reason weighed particularly with the members from this state. Bills of Rights generally begin with declaring that all men are by nature born free. Now, we should make that declaration with a very bad grace when a large part of our property consists in men who are actually born slaves.¹⁰

Incidentally, this throws light on the inquiry as to the reason for the absence of a bill of rights from the constitution of South Carolina.

ALL the explanations and arguments of the defenders of the Constitution as it came from the framers were, however, of no avail. In fact, the contenders for guarantees of human rights appropriated their opponents' weapons and hung them up in their own arsenals. Mr Whitehill, an Anti-federalist of the Pennsylvania ratifying convention, thus adapted to his purposes the contrast

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 249.

⁸ E. G. Bourne, ed. *Essays* 84, 85. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1901.

⁹ *Ibid.*, vol. II, pp. 156.

¹⁰ George Bancroft, *op. cit.*, vol. VI, p. 418.

^{*} *Ibid.*, pp. 112-113.

between Magna Carta and American bills of rights:

... if we learn anything from the English charter, it is this: that the people having negligently lost or submissively resigned their rights into the hands of the crown, they were glad to receive them upon any terms; their anxiety to secure the grant by the strongest evidence will be an argument to prove, at least, the expediency of the measure, and the result of the whole is a lesson instructing us to do by an easy precaution, what will hereafter be an arduous and perhaps insurmountable task.

Refuting the contention that there was danger in attempting to enumerate human rights lest some be overlooked, he pointed to the inclusion of the rights of *habeas corpus* and trial by jury in the Constitution, and said:

those exceptions prove a contrary sentiment to have been entertained by the very framers. . . . For if there were danger in the attempt to enumerate the liberties of the people, . . . how happens it that in the instances I have mentioned, that danger has been incurred? Have the people no other rights worth their attention, or is it to be inferred, agreeably to the maxim of our opponents, that every other right is abandoned?²¹

Another debater linked his argument with the admitted right to alter and abolish government, and insisted:

The truth is, that unless some criterion is established by which it could be easily and constitutionally ascertained how far our government may proceed, and by what it might appear when they transgress that jurisdiction, this idea of altering and abolishing government is a mere sound without substance.²²

PROPOSALS FROM THE CONVENTIONS

THE dissenting minority in Pennsylvania gave as the prime object of their criticism the omission of a bill of rights, though their arguments did not prevail and Pennsylvania ratified unconditionally.

Massachusetts, however, ratified with suggested amendments intended to limit the powers of Congress and assure the individual certain rights and privileges. Of these the most important was the first, which declared that the constitution should expressly state that all powers not delegated by it were reserved to the several states. Seven states ratified after this, and only one of them failed to recommend amendments for sub-

sequent adoption. Many of these were of a bill-of-rights nature.

Virginia introduced her long list with the demand "that there be a declaration or bill of rights asserting and securing from encroachment the essential and unalienable rights of the people. . . ." Although ten of the twenty articles suggested were taken directly from the esteemed and revered work of George Mason in 1776, the statements as a whole went considerably farther—a matter of importance since this declaration was copied by some of the few conventions that met after that of Virginia. At the start it laid down a wider platform of natural rights, in the words:

That there are certain natural rights of which men, when they form a social compact, cannot deprive or divest their posterity; among which are the enjoyment of life and liberty, with the means of acquiring, possessing, and protecting property, and pursuing and obtaining happiness and safety.

The third article inserted into the old bill of 1776 the idea

that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit, protection, and security of the people; and that the doctrine of non-resistance against arbitrary power and oppression is absurd, slavish, and destructive to the good and happiness of mankind.

Three new sections provided:

That no freeman ought to be taken, imprisoned, or seized of his freehold, liberties, privileges, or franchises, or outlawed or exiled, or in any other manner destroyed or deprived of his life, liberty or property but by the law of the land.

That every freeman restrained of his liberty is entitled to a remedy, to inquire into the lawfulness thereof, and to remove the same, if unlawful, and that such remedy ought not to be denied or delayed.

That every freeman ought to find a certain remedy, by recourse to the laws, for all injuries and wrongs he may receive in his person, property, or character. He ought to obtain right and justice freely, without sale, completely and without denial, promptly and without delay. . . .²³

Rights of assembly and petition, and freedom of speech were introduced, and a stronger demand was made for freedom of the press and of religion. The military sections were enlarged. The only clause not taken over from the famous Bill of 1776 is

²¹ J. B. McMaster and F. R. Stone, *op. cit.*, pp. 261, 286.

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 250-51.

²³ J. Elliot, *The Debates in the State Conventions on the Adoption of the Federal Constitution*, Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1888, vol. III, p. 658.

that urging the mutual duty of all to practice Christian forbearance.

New York—writing her first bill of rights since she assumed statehood—drew up twenty-four articles, including the natural rights sentiments and others already familiar. She specified that the prohibition of *ex post facto* laws extended only to laws concerning crimes; and the final sections went into fine distinctions regarding the judicial power of the United States.

North Carolina copied Virginia's twenty articles verbatim, and Rhode Island's eighteen sections were based mainly on those of Virginia and New York.

HISTORY BEHIND THE DEMANDS

THE new emphasis of these bills-of-rights suggestions has been indicated fully because much can be read between the lines of these sections—sections framed to stand beside old ones thought entirely adequate only a dozen years earlier. After all, these men throughout the states were but insisting that the bitter experiences of the few years of their independence should serve as a warning for the future. They were thinking of facts, not theories. Just seven years before this, they remembered, the legislatures of New Jersey, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and North Carolina had deprived citizens of the rights to a jury trial in civil cases. They could not forget that the Pennsylvania legislature had passed bills of attainder. In nearly all the states they had seen persons deprived of their property by the passage of laws that allowed worthless paper money and other property to be tendered in payment of debts and judgments. They recalled the impairment of the freedom of the press in Massachusetts by confiscatory taxation.

Besides this, it was not many years since they had submitted to the quartering of troops by the royal government in time of peace, and they had been denied the right of assembly and petition by the same power. They had writhed as the king's officials had searched their homes without warrants.

The provisions insisted upon in the amendments, as well as those in the body of the Constitution, are all to be accounted for by the experiences of disorders and uncertainties recently suffered. They were no idle speculations, but substantial definite safeguards, all based on past experience. They reflected a jealousy of administrators that had been aroused by the oppression of a distant government.

LESSONS had also been learned from the anarchy that had been the aftermath of war; it is these that help to account for the absence of a national bill of rights similar to those that had become familiar in the state governments. The main preoccupation of the framers had been not so much with the rights of man as with his duties. Their purpose was to substitute the authority of law for the unrestraint of the days of the Confederation. Above all, they were determined to protect property rights. The spirit of the body that passed the Declaration of Independence would not have held the Constitutional Convention to a level keel. The former was eloquent, emotional, vibrating with an enthusiasm that had to carry them through a difficult struggle. The latter was practical, disillusioned, face-to-face with stern realities, less confident of unrestrained popular control.

WITH their practical point of view, the framers saw the incongruity between the fine eighteenth-century sentiments of universal freedom and equality and the existence of Negro slavery. They had learned, early in the convention, that no constitution stood any chance of adoption unless it recognized the actuality of slavery. Succeeding American generations can but honor them for their sincerity and their refusal to write mere theoretical views that were plainly contradictory to the facts of their day. At the same time, a little more thought and attention might have led the fathers to the conclusion that an innovation might have been made in the content of a

bill of rights. Such an innovation would have meant the elimination of the generous, idealistic, but impossible abstractions, and the concentration on the concrete and practical content which predominated over the other material in every state bill of rights. This was the compromise that had to be accepted in the end, for there are no natural-rights clauses in the national bill of rights.

THE TEN AMENDMENTS

MADISON was elected to the first Congress under pledge to use his influence in favor of the passage of a bill of rights. In June, 1789, he introduced some amendments, seventeen of which were adopted by the House. The Senate compressed these seventeen into twelve, and endorsed them. President Washington announced the ratifications of the various states from time to time in messages to Congress. He reported the action of Virginia, the eleventh state and the last one necessary for the adoption of the amendments, on December 30, 1791, and that of Vermont on January 18, 1792. Vermont had ratified on November 3, however, as the tenth state. There is no record of any action by Connecticut, Massachusetts, or Georgia.

Ten amendments were ratified by the states. The two that failed of adoption provided for the ratio of representation in the House, and forbade that any law varying the compensation for Senators or Representatives should take effect until a new election should have intervened. These are unimportant to the present inquiry, and of course not strictly bill-of-rights material. Of the ten, eight contained the desired guarantees of personal rights, practically all of which were familiar material in the various state constitutions.

THE first amendment provided that there should be no established religion and no law to prohibit the free exercise thereof. This went farther than the state provisions hitherto, which had not mentioned an establishment of religion. After this action, how-

ever, the states began to include it. Freedom of speech was announced, thus introducing a great principle that followed up the Pennsylvania declaration of 1776. Freedom of the press was also not to be abridged. No law should prevent the right of assembly and petition. A well-regulated militia was declared necessary to the security of a free state, and the right to keep and bear arms was not to be infringed. The prohibition of the quartering of soldiers and the regulation of the right of search and seizure—both suggested by colonial governments—were couched in the time-honored phrases. Provisions concerning prosecution, trial, and punishment were the same as those previously demanded in the state bills.

The mention of the grand jury occurs first in the Constitution of the United States, in the provision that:

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger.

Six of the clauses protecting accused persons had been strongly insisted upon in the Revolutionary constitutions, but in several other respects the first eight amendments included topics previously mentioned only once or twice. The demand for a public trial had been made only by Pennsylvania, though seventy-five per cent of the states had specified that trial must be speedy. Compulsory process for witnesses followed up the lone demand of Maryland in her bill of rights of 1776. Trial of facts in the district where they occurred repeated a requirement made by less than half of the state bills of rights. The provision that no one should be twice put in jeopardy of life and limb had occurred only once. The promise that the accused should have the assistance of counsel for his defence had not been made since the days of the Massachusetts Body of Liberties.

In these respects, then, the Constitution as amended by these additions is almost an innovator, setting precedents to be followed largely by the states.

PROVISION for trial by jury in civil suits was more detailed than in state bills—where it had appeared infrequently—and a new provision occurred, specifying that “no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of the common law.” The ancient safeguard that no one should be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law existed generally in bills of rights since the days of the Great Charter, but the guarantee that private property should not be taken for public use without just compensation had been made by only two state bills of rights and by the Massachusetts Body of Liberties. It was, however, to become an increasingly familiar feature of state bills of rights. The Ordinance of 1787 had included it.

Article eight, which prohibited excessive bail or fines and cruel and unusual punishments, was lifted bodily from the English Bill of Rights of 1689, strengthened by the substitution of the word “shall” for “ought to.”

THUS, of the two dozen guarantees of personal rights added to the Constitution, nearly half appear to be newer ideas—either entire innovations or repetitions of provisions that as yet had appeared in only a very small number of states.

Amendments nine and ten state general principles of the American constitutional system—principles of fundamental importance. They are used extensively by the Supreme Court as guides in interpretation.

This national bill of rights was plainly a national product. Only two of its provisions were found in all the previous state bills: freedom of religion, and trial by jury. The principles are conspicuously American, culled from American experience, brought together from pronouncements emanating from all sections of the America of the eighteenth century. Comparatively few are of purely British origin. Its rulings, moreover, bind only the national government and in

no wise limit the powers of the states. They constitute a limitation not only of legislative powers, but also of executive powers vested in the president and of judicial powers vested in the supreme and inferior courts.

THE enumeration of these guarantees obviously implied some effective means of enforcing them, and Madison, their prime backer in Congress, had no doubt that “Independent tribunals of justice will consider themselves in a peculiar manner the guardians of these rights. . . .”¹⁴ In fact, judicial interpretation and the decision of cases have been the only way of knowing the practical effect of limitations such as those expressed in the fifth amendment. The all-embracing clauses of this great scion of Magna Carta included all of the safeguards for the protection of the citizen in his person, his liberty of action, and his rights of property—in all circumstances in which his rights might be affected by any action taken by the national government. The similar clauses of the fourteenth amendment, ratified in 1870, afforded the individual a parallel range of protection against the states.

With their rights thus guarded, the American people were prepared to give the new plan of government their general allegiance. It is important to repeat, however, that the masses—especially the more radical and democratic elements, the farmers and the country people, who were re-enforced by the professional and mercantile population of the towns—conditioned their support on the victory of these bills of rights principles.

Surely there ought to be no abatement of our commemorative zeal until we have paid full tribute and fitting honor to the spirit that insisted so tenaciously upon the inclusion within our basic law of these safeguards of our individual liberties.

¹⁴G. G. Bacon, *The Constitution of the United States in Some of Its Fundamental Aspects*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1928, p. 126.

Pupil-Made Lantern Slides in the Social Studies

LELAND S. MARCH

THE whole point in using pupil-made lantern slides in teaching a unit of work is to capitalize on the human trait of thinking in terms of pictures. The category of "illustration" includes realistic pictures of persons, places, and things. The "cartoon," on the other hand, is an action picture which tells a story or teaches a lesson. Pupil drawings of portraits are apt to be so crude that this type of slide had better be a photographic copy of a fine picture. These can be bought, hired, or made. No amount of money, however, can buy the visual images of your class expressed in the form of cartoons telling the story, for example, of the American Revolution or the Westward Movement.

PROCEDURE

THE process of making slides may be summarized in six steps:

1. Make clear to the class that they are not merely copying the pictures from textbooks, but creating original cartoons telling the story of the unit they are studying.
2. Present a brief overview of the unit to give ideas for illustrative work, but do not draw any cartoons for them.

Class activities that interest the group, give opportunity for development of special talent, and build up teaching equipment should certainly have wide appeal. These practical and specific suggestions come from a teacher in the Roosevelt School, Melrose, Massachusetts.

3. Now go back to the beginning of the unit and select the titles of, let us say, ten topics to be cartooned. Suggest the first topic to the class and call for suggestions on how to express it in a cartoon. Draw on the board a rough sketch (stick figures) of the best ones. The class is now ready to draw their own cartoons, which must be no larger than 3x2½ inches. Students may work individually or in groups.

4. Go through the entire list of topics in the same way and then collect the finished cartoons. In my experience, one suggested topic usually brings from four to eight radically different cartoons. Some students prefer to use charts, graphs, maps, while others use human figures in action.

5. Select the cartoons to be placed on slides. You might invite several members of the class to help you after school. Give each student a stack of the cartoons and have him select the ones he thinks worth using. By an interchange of the cartoons you can get the opinion of several students of the age for which the cartoons are intended. Finally, re-edit them yourself.

6. Now the actual preparation of the slides begins. There are several kinds of hand-made lantern slides and these can be used in as many combinations as the ingenuity of the American school boy and girl can imagine.

TYPES OF SLIDES

FIVE types of slides are possible:

1. Plain glass. Use "china-marking" pencils for lines and colors. Ink and lead pencil are unsatisfactory.

2. Celloslide. This is a sheet of cellophane cut to lantern slide size. You can use India ink of various colors, or a "cellophane" pencil. Lead pencil and school ink are not satisfactory.

3. Silhouette. This is a "cut-out" of black or any opaque paper pasted on a plain glass slide.

4. Combined. The combination of colored cellophane with any of the first three types to produce background, to suggest night, or lend variety has no limit.

5. Etched glass. This type has the greatest possibilities, as it is possible to write, draw, or paint with water colors on it.

MAKING AN ETCHED SLIDE

THE first four types of slides are so comparatively simple that little need be said on how to make them. The grinding of a slide, however, calls for further explanation. These can be bought already etched for about eight cents each, but because plain glass can be bought for one cent a slide and ground for about a half cent more, it is well to know how.

1. Provide each member of the class with a sheet of newspaper to protect the desk.

2. Pass out to each pupil a 6x8 inch piece of heavy window glass, or plate glass. They can bring their own, or they can be bought at a hardware store for one or two cents each. (These will last indefinitely.)

3. Pour from one-half to a whole teaspoonful of "glassive" on the grinding plates.

4. Place a few drops of water in the middle of the powder with an eye dropper.

5. Give each student a plain glass slide. Place it gently over the moistened compound and grind with a circular motion. One or two minutes ought to finish a slide.

6. Wash and dry the slides. Regrind any which need the corners finished.

CAUTIONS: Grind only one side of the slide. Grind the whole slide evenly. Grind no more than is necessary to produce the "etched" or "ground" appearance. Keep the grinding compound moist; it will work

faster. *Danger!* Keep "glassive" out of eyes and mouth.

WORKING ON ETCHED GLASS

PUPILS can readily learn to work on etched glass.

1. Give each pupil a sheet of white drawing paper.

2. Give each a cartoon. Lay the cartoon on the paper.

3. Give each pupil a prepared slide. Place the slide over the cartoon and trace the cartoon on the ground side of the glass with an ordinary lead pencil.

4. Use India waterproof ink to ink over the outlines. Complete all the slides to this stage of construction. From now on keep each cartoon with its slide.

5. Now color the slide with transparent water color. Ordinary school water colors are opaque. If the art teacher is willing, the class may color the slides in the art class under her supervision. Otherwise it is advisable to select a small group and do the final coloring after school.

PLAIN GLASS AND CELLOSLIDES

IN working on plain glass and celloslides use the same procedure as for etched glass except that instead of ordinary pencil a "china-marking" pencil must be used on the glass, and either a "cellophane" pencil or India ink must be used on the celloslide. Neither of these can be water colored.

COMBINED SLIDES

HERE again the same procedure should be used as for plain or etched glass, or celloslide. Colored cellophane may be added for desired background effect. Stick the cellophane to the glass background at the corners, as the glued spots show on the screen.

BINDING THE SLIDES

ALL slides should be covered with a piece of plain glass when used in the projector to protect the surface. A mat should be placed between the slide and the cover-glass

to prevent chafing. Mats may be purchased or made by: (1) sticking a narrow strip of binding tape around the face of the slide before putting on the cover-glass; (2) cutting out a border from black or opaque paper and placing it between the slide and cover-glass.

Binding tape may be purchased cut to the proper lengths, or for a lower price, in rolls. Some people like "Scotch tape," but it has disadvantages.

If regular binding tape is used:

1. Lay out strips of tape cut to the proper lengths ($4\frac{1}{2}$ inches for the long way and $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches for the short way of the slides).

2. Assemble the slide, mat, and cover-glass.

3. Moisten the *back* first, then the sticky side of a long strip of tape. Use one part glycerine and ten parts water to moisten the tape. Lay the tape sticky side up and press the edge of the assembled slide in the center of the moistened tape. Bend the edges of the tape over the sides of the slide and press firmly in place. Cut and fold under all corners. Repeat for all sides of the slide.

4. Place a star in the *lower left corner* of the *face* of the slide or the mat. When the slide is projected, this star is held *up* and *toward the rear* of the projector to make printing and writing read correctly on the screen.

USING LANTERN SLIDES IN CLASS

1. Lecture method. Have a story or "lecture," written by students, read while each slide is shown on the screen.

2. Discussion method. Show a slide, then call on members of the class for opinions on what is told by the cartoon. Bring out its importance by a general discussion.

3. "Talkie stills." Let a pupil take the part of each character in the cartoon. Tell the story through their dialogue, without costume or action.

4. Dramatization. Show a slide on the screen for five or ten seconds. Cut the picture and throw a spotlight on the stage prepared at the front of the room. Costumed

characters portray the story of the cartoon by a short dialogue and dramatic sketch.

5. Explanation. Have the pupil or pupils who planned and drew the cartoon explain what they are attempting to portray.

SUPPLEMENTING HAND-MADE SLIDES

OFTEN it is valuable to use photographic lantern slides when dealing with subjects too difficult for the class to draw well. Copies of portraits, historic places, and scenes are in this classification. Snapshots taken on summer travels may be placed on slides and made available to the class.

Moving pictures are ideal for showing the operation of moving machinery, farm implements and processes, and canal locks, and we need hardly mention their value in bringing travel experiences to the class.

EQUIPMENT NEEDED

1. Plain glass slides (two per cartoon—one for the cartoon, one for the cover-glass).
2. One can of "glassive"—a grinding compound for grinding slides.
3. One grinding plate per pupil (piece of heavy glass—6x8 inches).
4. Water container and eye dropper.
5. India waterproof ink and steel pens.
6. One package (500) celloslides.
7. One roll of binding tape.
8. Two packages of mats.
9. One "china-marking" pencil of each color.
10. One "cellophane" pencil of each color.
11. One book of transparent water colors.
12. Water color brushes and water dishes.
13. Two ounces of glycerine.

WHERE TO GET EQUIPMENT

Visual Education Service, 13 Clarendon Street, Boston, Massachusetts (complete slide making kit, plain and etched glass).
Keystone Manufacturing Company, 288 A Street, Boston (complete slide making kit, transparent water colors).

Vocabulary Building in Junior High School

CATHERINE L. McHALE

INCREASING attention has been given in recent years to improving both the ability to read and the habits of study of students at the secondary level. Many school systems are attempting to remedy the deficiencies in training that have been revealed by research and are planning programs for the improvement of reading and of study habits in grades seven to twelve.

This trend is of great importance to those of us who are classroom teachers of the social studies, for to pupils language is the most important single means of assimilating the subject matter and of understanding the concepts in our subject. Whether the English teacher is assigned the responsibility for developing these related skills, or a reading department is organized, or a remedial reading clinic is set up, we teachers of the social studies can not dodge the responsibility for developing, as far as is possible, the specific skills necessary to read intelligently in our field.

Ernest Horn, in his very comprehensive treatment of the problem of reading in the social studies, says:

The improvement of reading is a responsibility that must be accepted by the teacher of social studies in the social studies class, even though another teacher has been

designated the teacher of reading or another period has been called the reading period. . . .¹

ANY experienced teacher of the social studies realizes that the ability of her students to read, analyze, and evaluate reference material is one of the controlling factors in their success or failure in these content subjects. In carrying out the Washington, D. C., program in character education, it was found that, "In the middle and upper grades failure in content subjects such as geography and history may result directly from inability to read."²

VOCABULARY BUILDING

OF course, the ability to read factual material is not a general ability, but rather a combination of many specific skills. Understanding of vocabulary is one of the many factors in intelligent reading. How important a part vocabulary plays in reading is indicated by Dolch, who writes that "too difficult vocabulary is probably more destructive of good reading than any other single factor."³ It has also been said that, "Vocabulary is so basic because it represents not merely a list of words, but the key to important concepts. . . ."⁴ That vocabulary is indeed a key to concepts can be readily illustrated. For example, to understand the Civil War period, students must have a clear

¹ Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Scribners, 1937, p. 202.

² Marion Monroe and Bertie Backus, *Remedial Reading*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1937, pp. 3-4.

³ Edward W. Dolch, *The Psychology and Teaching of Reading*. Boston: Ginn, 1939, p. 151.

⁴ Ruth Strang, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High School and College*. Lancaster, Pennsylvania: Science Press, 1938, p. 74.

Vocabulary limitations have long been a stumbling block in social studies teaching. This survey of recent studies, aids, and methods is contributed by a teacher of history in the Patterson Park Junior-Senior High School, Baltimore.

understanding of the annotations and connotations of such terms as "secession," "carpet-baggers," "scalawags," and "reconstruction." Without an understanding of the vocabulary of history, the subject matter itself can not be understood.⁵

VOCABULARY LISTS

TO plan a vocabulary-building program for junior high school American history classes, the teacher must obviously know (1) what vocabulary she is going to teach and (2) how she is going to teach it. Research on both these points, while neither complete nor conclusive, has some suggestions to offer. First of all there have been compiled several word lists which will aid the teacher in the selection of those words and terms on which her vocabulary work will be based. Among these, the Kelty vocabulary list for the middle grades, listing a vocabulary of 711 words in American history, should certainly be utilized.⁶ While intended for elementary school level, the list will be very useful to the junior high school teacher. The Pressey lists of 1924⁷ and 1933⁸ will also be

⁵ See a study made by W. R. Phipps, "An Experimental Study in Developing History Reading Ability with Sixth Grade Pupils through the Development of an Active History Vocabulary," a doctoral dissertation offered at Johns Hopkins University of which an abstract appeared in the *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 7, pp. 19-23 (September, 1938), and Thomas J. Tormey, "The Effect of Drill upon the Specific and General Comprehension of Historical Content," University of Iowa Studies in Education, Doctoral Theses, Vol. IX; No. 1, pp. 153-180.

⁶ Mary G. Kelty, "A Suggested Basic Vocabulary in American History for the Middle Grades," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 335-49 (December, 1931).

⁷ L. C. Pressey, *The Technical Vocabularies of the Public School Subjects*, Sec. 5, American History. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company. For a description of the method used in completing this list, see the *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, Vol. III, pp. 182-85 (April 30, 1924). Ralph Livingston concluded that this list was adapted to junior high school level. See "The Interrelations of the Vocabulary in Public School Studies," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, Vol. V, pp. 208-18 (May 12, 1926).

⁸ L. C. and S. F. Pressey, "The Determination of a Minimal Vocabulary in American History," *Educational Method*, Vol. XII, pp. 205-11 (January, 1933).

helpful. A longer list (1900 words) of the vocabulary of American history as found in eight senior high school textbooks has been compiled by Barr and Gifford.⁹ Some of these terms were included by Kelty in her list. The junior high school teacher might well find a study of this list helpful.

In a four-cycle history program where American history is taught in the middle grades, junior high school, senior high school, and colleges, much duplication is inevitable until research determines what vocabulary can best be taught at each level.¹⁰ In the absence of such a scientifically determined list of the vocabulary of American history best adapted to junior high school level,¹¹ the teacher must depend largely on her own judgment.

VALUABLE though these lists are as an aid to the teacher in planning a minimum-essentials vocabulary list, they are only an aid, for no single prepared list will fit every situation. In planning the vocabulary work for the term, the teacher must carefully peruse her course of study, textbook, supplementary reference material frequently used, as well as the source material, biography, and fiction to which the youngsters are referred, jotting down, unit by unit, those words and phrases the understanding of which is essential to the mastery

⁹ A. S. Barr and C. W. Gifford, "The Vocabulary of American History," *Journal of Education Research*, Vol. XX, pp. 103-21 (September, 1929).

¹⁰ In an article in *Social Education* for March, 1939 (pp. 191-96), Elmer Ellis, Fremont P. Wirth, John R. Davey, and Edgar B. Wesley indicate the need for differentiation of the materials and subject matter used in American history courses at the four levels.

¹¹ See L. C. Pressey, "A Study in the Learning of the Fundamental Special Vocabulary of History from the Fourth through the Twelfth Grade," Part IV in the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies*, edited by Truman L. Kelly and A. C. Krey. New York: Scribners, 1934. This study is an attempt to find which of a list of three hundred and forty-six terms is known by students at various levels. For the results by grades, see pages 210-18. For the most recent work of the same author, see Luella Cole, *The Improvement of Reading*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1938.

of that unit. As the teacher looks over her complete lists, she will probably find that it assumes gargantuan proportions. Careful pruning is in order. The teacher's own experience will guide her in the elimination of the less important words. Checking her own selections with the word lists cited above will be helpful. In addition, the minimum essentials vocabulary list should be checked with the Thorndike *Word Book*¹² or Buckingham and Dolch's *Combined Word List*¹³ in order to avoid attempted mastery of words too difficult for the grade.¹⁴

In addition to listing those terms more or less peculiar to American history, such as "slavery," "colony," and "suffrage," it is also necessary for the teacher to include those other words which, while not a part of the technical vocabulary of American history, present difficulties to the students, are met frequently in the readings, and should be understood by the pupils at this level.¹⁵

¹² Edward L. Thorndike, *A Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words*. Rev. ed. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

¹³ B. R. Buckingham and E. W. Dolch, *op. cit.* Boston: Ginn, 1936.

¹⁴ In trying to decide whether certain words are worth the effort at mastery at this level, it is well to bear in mind that Livingston, *op. cit.*, found that 30 to 40 per cent of *A Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words* were too hard for junior high school pupils. Thorndike himself in *Improving the Ability to Read* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935) suggests that by the end of grade nine the pupils should know from 10,000 to 25,000 words (p. 2). U. W. Leavell and G. E. Hollister, in "Social Studies Vocabulary Difficulties in the Upper Grades," *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. XII, pp. 287-93 (May, 1935), found that the average vocabulary, based on a study of 307 pupils in rural school using the "Terman Technique," for seventh grade pupils was 8,671 and for eighth grade pupils was 9,794. Probably in teaching an average class in grades seven and eight, the teacher should not attempt to "hold" the class for many words beyond the first ten thousand. Checking doubtful cases with the Buckingham and Dolch *Combined Word List* may help the teacher in making a decision. Of course, the ability of the class must be considered in choosing the minimum essentials list of key words.

¹⁵ Adelaide M. Ayer, in her doctoral dissertation, *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 212, 1926), found in studying the difficulties at fifth grade level that both the technical and non-technical vocabulary must be studied (pp. 8-9).

Such words as "extensive," "adventurous," and "devastate" might appear in the teacher's list. Those especially difficult words, which appear here and there in texts and reference books, like high mountains in already hilly country, need not be added to the list of required terms. They can be explained when needed to clarify the lesson in which they appear, and then forgotten. One can not master everything!

VOCABULARY PRE-TESTS

NOW that the teacher has selected from the reference material the technical vocabulary essential to the mastery of the term's work and the non-technical vocabulary which might present difficulties, all that remains is to transfer the minimum essentials list from the teacher's plan book to the youngsters' cerebrums. How can this be done most effectively?

As a starting point the teacher will need to know her class's specific ability in the vocabulary, not of all American history, but in the vocabulary of the period to be taught during the term. A pre-test based on the required list will give the teacher this picture of her class. If a standardized test in reading has been administered by the English or guidance departments of the school, a study of the class scores on the vocabulary part of the test will be helpful in locating the poorest and the best students. For a clear picture of the specific vocabulary ability the pupils bring to the study of the term's work, however, the teacher must depend on her own pre-test. This test might use the words in context—that is, in sentences of a historical nature, with directions to the pupil to choose from a series of answers the words or phrases which best fit the terms underlined in the sentences given.¹⁶

¹⁶ See the Kelty-Moore Test of Concepts in the Social Studies, pp. 227-33, and four forms of the test administered by Luella Cole Pressey in *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*, pp. 189-204, cited above.

See also, for sample questions, the *Second Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, "Classroom and Administrative Problems in the Teaching of the Social Sciences," Chapter V, "History and Word Meanings," by A. S. Barr.

THE scores on the pre-test of the term's vocabulary will aid the teacher in grouping her students for vocabulary drill. Pupils who make very low scores should be notified, for "if pupils can be led to sense their handicaps and to recognize the value of special help, they usually respond favorably. If genuine interest in self-improvement is aroused, the problem of motivation is practically solved."¹⁷ The class must understand that the entire list of words on which they were tested will be studied during the term, and that they will be tested at the end of each unit and at the end of the term for vocabulary growth. The keeping of individual records showing the scores on the pre-test and unit tests provide the class and teacher with a means of estimating their progress and may be a stimulus to further effort.¹⁸

PUPIL LISTS FROM THEIR TEXTS

THE pupils' first introduction to the difficult words of each unit will, of course, vary with the methods of the teacher. If, as is common, the textbook is the first point of attack on a unit, the pupils can be asked to skim the text for new and difficult words included in the textbook material on a given topic within the unit. We will not stop here to deplore textbook teaching,¹⁹ but face the reality that, in America at least, the text is always with us. The word list, then, as selected by the pupils, will come basically

It would be well, too, to note in planning the pre-test that Victor Harold Kelly, in *An Experimental Study of Certain Techniques for Testing Word Meanings*, University of Iowa Studies in Education, Doctoral Theses, Vol. IX, No. 1, p. 88, concluded that "The results of this experimentation indicate that, in general, the time limit for a test should be placed so as to allow a large percentage of the pupils to finish."

¹⁷ James M. McCallister, *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading*. New York: Appleton Century, 1936, p. 86. See also pp. 189-271 for practical suggestions for improving reading in the content subjects.

¹⁸ If the terms on the pre-test are divided according to the units in which they are taught, and the pre-test is scored by units, it will be easy to compare the scores on the pre-test and unit tests.

¹⁹ Ernest Horn, *op. cit.*, p. 207 ff. discusses the prevalence of the textbook method in the social studies and suggests some valid uses, pp. 218-19.

from the text. Additions will be made to the list when, having completed the text treatment of the topic, the pupils use other reference material.

The students seem to enjoy listing the words to be learned, and in a surprisingly short time even the slowest students will unerringly put their fingers on the words they need most. A large part of a class period will be needed to list the difficult words in any given topic, since our textbooks contain so many difficult words. Ideally, of course, according to reading authorities, new words should be introduced gradually and be repeated frequently in otherwise easy material.²⁰ However, textbooks in American history at junior high school level have not yet been planned according to the principles established by research in reading. Until that millennium, then, the teacher will probably find that the text material on one topic may contain from ten to twenty words on which the youngsters need help.

CLASS STUDY

AS the class skims over the text material on the topic, the words selected by the pupils should be written on the board. Then the class can study the words together, attempting to identify them. In this group study of words the teacher should help the students to develop independent techniques for attacking unfamiliar words. Birdsall found, in an intensive remedial reading program in grade seven, that the gifted students had already worked out a technique for themselves and she suggests that, for slower pupils, "the handicap is not one which cannot be remedied . . . for what the superior pupil does naturally, the less gifted can be taught to do."²¹ Some of the methods used by superior pupils in attacking new words were (1) fitting the word into context, (2) analyzing word for smaller known

²⁰ Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

²¹ Agnes Birdsall, "Mental Habits in Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXXII, p. 687 (May, 1932).

word, (3) remembering previous references, and (4) sounding out syllables.²²

If, after having considered the word elements, initial sound, syllables, and context, the pupils have not correctly identified the word, such a dictionary as the Thorndike-Century *Junior Dictionary*²³ can be consulted. The word should be written on the board as it appears in the dictionary, in syllabic and phonetic form, with the diacritical marks indicated. If the various diacritical marks and key words using them (as given at the top of every page in the dictionary) are printed on a chart and posted in a prominent place in the classroom, much time will be saved in using this aid to pronunciation.

USE OF CONTEXT

WHEN the members of the class can pronounce the new word, they are ready to define it by a study of the context. This study of the word in relation to its context is most important. To paraphrase from a well known source, we might say that in word recognition we have three aids—word elements or syllables, phonetics, and context—and the greatest of those is context! The class should, then, be guided to seek contextual clues and to “guess” from them what the word probably means. Substitution of other words in the sentence sometimes sheds light upon the new word. In checking with the dictionary, the students must be taught to discriminate among the many meanings given there and to choose the meaning which best fits the context. Trying out each meaning in the sentence is helpful. The meaning agreed upon by the class should be written beside the word on the blackboard.

When the entire list of words for the topic has thus been studied, the class is ready to really read the text material (with the help of guide questions and other suggestions for study) without the obstacle of unfamiliar vocabulary. As the topic is further studied

through wide reading of reference material, practice in reading these words will occur. Also new words will be met, added to the list on the board, and studied in the same way.

CONTINUING USE AND DRILL

AFTER this class study of the pronunciation and meaning of the new words has been done, can we consider these words to be “taught”? Emphatically not! This is only the beginning. “In addition to this study of words in context²⁴ and to a program of extensive reading where the same words will be met,²⁵ the new vocabulary should be utilized in the daily recitations as much as possible, both by teacher and students. Mere verbalism must be avoided. The teacher must draw upon and build up the experiential background of the pupils so that the vocabulary will be meaningful. McKee points out the danger of verbalism and advises that “Every effort should be made to utilize representative concrete experiences in the form of projects, excursions, construction work, experiments, and the like. . . . Pictures, graphs, familiar illustrations, and simple explanations should be used frequently.”²⁶

²² E. L. Thorndike, in *Improving the Ability to Read*, cited above, summarizes the values of studying words in context rather than in isolated word drills (pp. 9-11). Arthur I. Gates, also, working in reading at elementary school level, mentions the importance of studying words in context in several places. For example see *The Improvement of Reading* (New York: Macmillan, 1935), p. 271 ff., and *Interest and Ability in Reading* (New York: Macmillan, 1930), pp. 195-97.

²³ The values of extensive reading are summarized in Carter V. Good's *The Supplementary Reading Assignment*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1927, p. 21 ff. See also the *Eighth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, “The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies,” Chapter VI, “The Contribution of Research Toward the Understanding and Solution of Collateral Reading Problems,” by R. E. Swindler; and Mabel Snedaker and Ernest Horn, “Reading in the Various Fields of the Curriculum,” Part I, Chapter V, of the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

²⁴ See *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, cited above, “Vocabulary Development,” by Paul McKee. See also Joseph C. Dewey, *A Case Study of Reading Comprehension Difficulties in American History*, University of Iowa Studies

²⁵ *Idem*.

²⁶ Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1935.

It is obvious, then, that vocabulary can not be considered as just one phase of the work which can be taught by "a" method. In addition to providing meaningful experiences which will, as we have been trying to do for some time, "make history real," the teacher will find that short daily drills will help to "fix" the new words.²⁷ These daily drills can not substitute for the study of words in context, or for a wide reading program, or for a rich experiential background. The drill is only a small and supplementary part of the program of vocabulary-building.

DRILL METHODS

THE daily drill might include not only some of the words in the current topic, but one or two words from previous topics within the units or from previous units. The drills should include pronunciation, definition, and use in sentences of a historical nature. This latter is important, for, as we have seen above, isolated word drills have doubtful value. Many procedures can be used to vary the daily drill:

(1) Filling in key words in a sentence or paragraph, followed by defining the key words used.

(2) Matching key words with definitions, followed by using the key words in sentences.

(3) Studying pictures, using in sentences

in Education, Doctoral Theses, Vol. X, No. 1, pp. 26-54. After studying pupils in eighth grade American history classes, Dewey concludes that "Children know certain meanings for a word, but they may not know the meaning necessary for the proper understanding of a given sentence. . . . Too much confidence should not be placed in verbal response as evidence of understanding or in verbal presentation as an adequate method of teaching. The use of concrete materials such as models, maps, charts, and pictures wherever possible will make more certain a real understanding of the meanings presented."

²⁷ As part of a school-wide program to improve reading in the Patterson Park High School in Baltimore, each teacher spends the first few minutes of each period on vocabulary drill. In every subject, including the "minors," the study of at least three words used in connection with the work in that subject is made daily. This vocabulary drill, being a part of the daily routine, is written on a given blackboard each day and can be begun by the class while the teacher is still on "hall duty."

the key words suggested by the picture, followed by definition of the key words.

(4) Matching the key words with synonyms or antonyms, followed by use in sentences.

(5) Studying sentences containing words from the vocabulary list, choosing among several meanings those which best fit the key words underlined.

(6) Using flash cards, pronouncing and defining the words, and using them in sentences.

(7) Writing a paragraph. Give a topic sentence and several key words closely related to it. These are to be put together so as to make a connected summary of some phase of the current topics. This paragraph may be either factual or descriptive.²⁸

OTHER variations will occur to the teacher. The pupils, too, will suggest all sorts of vocabulary games. If a rotating vocabulary committee is given the responsibility for the daily drill and if a board is reserved for their use, they will appear after school with amazing suggestions for testing the vocabulary growth of their fellows in the next lesson. Provision for extra practice for slow pupils or for enrichment for superior pupils can be made by selecting some permanent members for the rotating vocabulary committee.

As the work on the units draws to a close, more intensive study on the vocabulary list must be done. After the problem set up at the beginning of the unit has been solved, the graphs, charts, and cartoons drawn, the outlines and summaries made, and the subject matter thereby assimilated, the final review of the unit might be a vocabulary lesson. At this stage of the unit, the vocabulary list, as selected by the pupils during the unit, probably covers several blackboards. Turning then to the list on the blackboard (by now probably copied into the students' notebooks) the teacher might, with the help

²⁸ The comparative value of these various drills, and of the method suggested later for the final vocabulary lesson of the unit, is not known.

of the class, eliminate some of the words. The class may as well realize that a few, at least, are not important enough, at present, to be included in the required list; these words might have been necessary to the understanding of a particular phase of the unit, but they are not valuable beyond that. These words can then be removed so that the basic words, the required list, will remain for final review.

REVIEW AND CLINCHING

AS with the daily vocabulary drills, a variety of methods can be employed in this final attack on the vocabulary of the unit. Sometimes it will be found that many words in a unit have the same prefix or suffix. If so, then here is an opportunity to teach the meaning of that prefix or suffix, so that another word clue will be at the students' command in future reading. For example, in the unit on Territorial Expansion, such words as "exploration" "acquisition," "admission" will appear frequently in the reading and will probably be selected for the minimum essentials list. In reviewing the unit this would be a good opportunity to teach the youngsters that "ion" as a suffix means "act of." Applying their knowledge would show them that "exploration" means "act of exploring," "acquisition" means "act of acquiring," and "admission" means "act of admitting." In other units, perhaps, there would be opportunities to teach the meanings of other prefixes and suffixes.²⁹

Once a prefix or suffix has been learned, the current vocabulary committee or some interested student might be asked to print on a chart the prefix or suffix, its meaning, and examples of its use from their historical vocabulary. This might be posted in the room where it will be referred to when the need arises. In this same connection, if several words in the unit list have a common

Latin root, the derivation of these terms might be studied.³⁰ Classes in the academic curricula, taking Latin, particularly enjoy this kind of word study.

IN American history classes, where we are not interested in word study "per se," the study of prefixes, suffixes, and roots may not be worth the time spent on it. Perhaps this might be a worthwhile review procedure in classes or groups of superior ability. In average or slow groups some study of this kind might be done, the amount of time and relative emphasis varying with the situation. In schools where this type of word study is carried on in the English classes, the word clues learned there might be applied to the vocabulary of American history.

ANOTHER means of giving the students a review of the key words is to present them in a new context in a series of paragraphs prepared by the teacher and placed on the blackboard or distributed in hectographed or mimeographed form, and studied intensively. The making of dictionaries on the vocabulary of the unit or of the term, either as an individual or class enterprise, helps to give a review of the terms included. For each word the student might include in his dictionary the usual form, the phonetic and syllabic form, definition fitting the context (as it was used in the current unit) as well as an example of its use.

In addition to reviewing the terms through the study of prefixes, suffixes, or roots, through presenting these key words in new context, or through some creative piece of work, such as making a dictionary, the teacher may find it necessary to spend part of the final vocabulary period on drills, as distinct from the "re-view," although of course the review has some drill values. Some of the drills suggested above might be used at this point and others will occur to the teacher and class. The use of several "rapid-fire" drills will be found more effective.

²⁹ Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, p. 352, lists some common Latin roots.

³⁰ A list of common prefixes and suffixes can be found in most dictionaries. See also Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, pp. 350-51; or Marion Monroe and Bertie Backus, *op. cit.*, pp. 69-74.

tive than one or two longer drills. The teacher must never let such drills degenerate into mere pronunciation or definition-calling exercises. While the pupil must be able to pronounce and define each word, the ability to use it correctly in a historical sentence is more important.

ONE form of drill that can be used in the final vocabulary lesson of the unit is a "vocabulary bee" with two teams competing. "Spelling bees" and other "bees" are as out of date as yesterday's newspaper and are in educational disgrace, probably rightly so, for indubitably the students who need drilling least get most. However, the preparation for a "vocabulary bee" is, with some classes at least, a mighty motivation for the mastery of the minimum essentials list. In order to insure some learning on the part of those eliminated from the contest, it is wise to require that they have their notebooks open to the word list as they sit at their desks and consult the list as the "bee" progresses. The pronunciation, definition, and use of each word should be required in the contest. Such a contest makes use of the group competitive spirit, of course. Ideally, perhaps, the effort to beat one's own score is the only legitimate use of the competitive instinct in school. However, you and I, being human, know that all of us will put forth much more effort to help our group or team to win a contest than we will to surpass our own record. An "Information Please" or "Professor Quiz" program are other possibilities for the review lesson.

To return the unit test and discuss each question with the class is a real teaching activity. Tabulation of the class score on each word is sometimes enlightening. The keeping of individual, team, and class graphs of the scores on the pre-tests and unit tests will provide both teachers and individual pupils with a means of estimating growth. When the test results are studied, each pupil should star in his notebook list the words not yet mastered. Individual, group, and class weaknesses should be noted by the

teacher and further drill provided where needed. By the end of the term, when the final test is given, there should be complete mastery of the required list.

HOW LARGE A VOCABULARY?

HOW many words should be learned each term, and how much time should be given to vocabulary study so that it contributes to the assimilation of subject matter and to the understanding of the concepts to be developed in American history, has not yet been scientifically determined. Newburn's study³¹ of the methods of vocabulary drill in American history classes at the senior high school level found a gain in vocabulary but a loss of subject matter in the group receiving vocabulary drills, as compared with the control group in which no attention was paid to vocabulary difficulties. The comparative loss in subject matter might indicate that there was not a close enough relation between the word drills and context or perhaps that too large a proportion of class time was spent on vocabulary.³²

We history teachers are, very clearly, concerned with vocabulary only to the extent to which vocabulary growth is a direct aid to achievement in our field. In order to teach this phase of our work more effectively we need help from those who work in research with such problems as (1) Which words should be taught to American history classes at junior high school level? (2) How many words should be taught? (3) What combination of context study, wide reading, and word drills will be the most effective and economical? and (4) How much time should be spent on each of these parts of the vocabulary-building program and on the total program, so as to contribute most to learning in history? In the absence of definite and scientifically determined data, the experience of the teacher—and her conscience—must be her guide!

³¹ Harry K. Newburn, *The Relative Effect of Two Methods of Vocabulary Drill on Achievement in American History*, University of Iowa Studies in Education, Doctoral Theses, Vol. IX, No. 3, pp. 9-30.

³² *Idem*.

Society Is Our Laboratory

ARTHUR REPKE

SO that high school students in our Illinois community may see concrete illustrations of the nature of social reality, they are brought in direct contact with social problems by engaging in surveys. Two groups have recently made studies of families on relief in two townships in DuPage County. They are visiting families, government relief agencies, and religious and secular groups concerned with the local problem of poverty. Another group is interviewing businessmen to determine the possibilities of employment for students after graduation. Housing, health, and recreational facilities are also receiving attention.

COMMITTEE PLANNING

THE students who conduct these studies meet in committees to determine the limits of their problems and to outline definitely the questions upon which they expect to collect data. Students who are surveying the opportunities for youth direct their questions in such a way as to find out where most of the vocational opportunities lie, what kinds of positions are overcrowded, and what personal requirements are needed

This report of community study should provide practical suggestions to the many teachers who wish to use the immediate social environment in their teaching. Mr Repke has charge of the social science department in the Glenbard Township High School at Glen Ellyn, Illinois.

for those positions which are not crowded. They also discuss methods of approach to be employed in meeting people with whom they expect to talk. Some of those whom they interview are heads of local business establishments and officers of local organizations such as the Chamber of Commerce, Rotary and Lions Clubs, and labor groups. Periodic meetings are held to determine the progress of the study and to discuss any questions that may arise. When the observations have been made and data collected, the students tabulate these data and compare findings. They write up as complete a paper as they can, embodying statements of the problem, the procedure followed, the difficulties encountered, a discussion of findings, with any needed charts, diagrams, and explanatory statements, and, finally, their generalizations and their estimate of present and future tendencies.

INDIVIDUAL INVESTIGATION

ALL students do not make first hand studies of specific social conditions by personal interviews and direct observations. Last year there were twenty-three seniors and five juniors engaged in such studies. These assignments are given to students who are best equipped on the basis of ability and interest. When students say "We would like to study a local problem," they are asked such questions as "What problem are you especially interested in? How do you expect to go about studying it? What are you looking for? Have you thought of a course of procedure?" If the students show that they know what they want, if they indicate

their ability to approach their problem objectively and intelligently, they are permitted to draw up their plans. Among the references suggested to students in drawing up their plans are: *Making Democracy Work*¹ and some issues of *The Civic Leader*, *The American Observer*, and *The Weekly News Review*. These suggest projects for study and give additional references.

THE other students work on individual projects or problems which are carried out by reading, reviewing, or criticizing certain books, periodicals, and reports directly associated with economic and sociological principles arising in the course of study. Materials for these special studies are made available to the students in the classroom as well as in the library. They are not only basic and supplementary high school textbooks but also elementary and introductory college textbooks. Periodicals to which students have access are *Nation's Business*, *The New Republic*, *The Nation*, *Vital Speeches*, *The New York Times Book Review*, *School Life*, *The Manchester Guardian*, *The Christian Century*, *Harpers*, *Fortune*, *Forum*, and others.

In order to get students to extend their reading for a general view and to acquire a body of accurate information, they are held responsible for a certain amount of reading each week. For example, if the subject for study is technological change, social change, men and machines, social security, or any one of a large number of subjects, students are assigned specific pages to read. They are given forms to fill out which, among other things, require that the student state the relation between the material read and the larger meanings embodied in the course of study. They are required to list a number of the most important sentences in the material read, to state new ideas gained, to list questions which come to mind as a result of the reading, and to comment on the nature of the reading materials.

¹A pamphlet by Walter E. Myer and Clay Coss: Washington, D. C. Civic Education Service, 15c.

STUDENT FORUM

THE Glenbard Student Forum, composed of students who are especially interested in discussion problems which can not be fully discussed in class, has evolved as a result of student demand. Students have organized, conducted, and perpetuated the organization of their own accord. It was not the brain child or pet hobby of a faculty member. The students themselves felt that they would like the opportunity to meet and discuss questions of paramount current interest. Other open forums are conducted by students on various aspects of the subject matter arising in the course of study. Sometimes the regular class period is turned over to the students for this purpose. Those who have vacant periods and can spare the time are welcome to attend. Individual students are designated, sometimes ahead of the appointed day, to prepare reports on some aspects of the subject. Although opposing points of view are presented it is emphasized that the conference technique and not the debate technique is to be employed in these forums. Students feel that they are not to try to win arguments or force issues, but rather that they are to examine all elements of the problem with as little prejudice as possible and that each member of the group is obliged to contribute to the discussion of the problem.

CLASS PROCEDURES

STUDENTS are encouraged to use the bulletin board. Newspaper and magazine clippings, cartoons, graphs, and pictures pertaining to the subject matter are posted from time to time. These items are kept on 12 x 18 cards which can go into a scrap book later on. One card may be headed "Changing Status of Women." Such a card will contain illustrations depicting the activities of women in industry, business, athletics, agriculture, music, art, and the like. They will indicate the varied nature of women's activities today as compared with those of women in the past and also in other parts of the world.

In addition to the procedures set forth in the preceding paragraphs, other classroom techniques are employed, such as informal talks and discussions, oral and written reports, and quizzes and examinations. Students are encouraged to take notes effectively, use references often, make outlines to aid memory and conscientiously evaluate their own progress in terms of the objectives of the course.

THE desired relationship between the instructor and student is not a stereotyped "teacher-pupil" kind but rather one in which the teacher is considered a student among students, a student whose wider experience, more extended knowledge, and

background makes him a desired associate and guide in studying the complexities of modern life.

It is emphasized that the general attitude of the student and his spirit of earnestness count for much, that he is taking part in the educative process for his own benefit and not for the teacher's sake, and that through the varied types of activities offered, young people have the opportunity of gaining a fairly comprehensive understanding of the fundamental factors entering into the development of the human personality and the organization of society. Only in this way can we develop to a fuller extent the latent potentialities of young people whom we expect to create a more adequate society.

What, exactly, is this idea of individual liberty? What do we mean when we talk about the beauty and the dignity of the human personality?

Why we mean that unknown fellow, mounted on his soap-box in the city street, speaking his piece about the way he thinks the country and the government ought to be run.

We mean that editor or author, writing as he pleases, condemning or commending the administration as his opinions dictate.

We mean that little group of Mennonites or Mormons or Quakers worshipping in their own churches in the way that their consciences tell them is right.

We mean the ordinary citizen expressing his frank opinions to his Mayor or Congressman or President, *and getting consideration of them.*

We mean the businessman setting up shop for the kind of business and in the kind of community that he prefers, with nothing but the public welfare to say him nay.

We mean the workingman at liberty to choose his own occupation and to move when he pleases into another.

We mean the scientist free to search for truth, and the educator free to teach it, unhampered by the fear of some "super-man" who makes his own truth and allows no competition.

These are ordinary things to a people that has done them pretty much without interruption for a century and a half. They seem elementary and commonplace—so simple that it seems unnecessary to speak of them.

But actually they are not ordinary things. *They are the hallmarks of civilization.* They stand for the gracious way of living that humanity has always been groping for, through even the blackest nights of tyranny and barbarism that history has recorded (Frank Murphy, Attorney General of the United States, "Civil Liberties and the Cities," *Vital Speeches of the Day*, June 15, 1939, p. 543).

Personnel Administration in the Modern State

G. LYLE BELSLEY

WE are all aware that the range and complexity of governmental activities have increased tremendously in the last few decades. If our forefathers of a century ago could visit us, they would be amazed at the tasks which public authorities perform and control today. In their time governments concerned themselves, in the main, with three fields of activity. They provided for the defense of the country by maintaining an army and a navy and by carrying on diplomatic relations with other nations. Secondly, they preserved peace and order within the country. Police forces and courts were the instrumentalities to these ends. Finally, they performed certain services which were socially necessary but which were unprofitable for private citizens to render.

Today these elementary functions of government remain but, in addition, a great many more have been undertaken. To some extent these new functions have been assumed because of changing philosophies of government. Most of them, however, are

responses to the rather insistent demands of our complex, highly integrated, social life. The pioneer, isolated in his cabin, had little need of government. He satisfied his wants with his own production. Contacts with his neighbors were infrequent and largely social. But the growth of population and the application of scientific discoveries changed this individualistic era into one of interdependence. Specialization and professionalization proceeded rapidly.

OUR EXPANDING GOVERNMENT

THIS change in modern life has brought about an increasing measure of social control. Such control has been absolutely necessary for the safety of the average citizen. For example, we have all become dependent upon government inspection of the meats we eat. Our pioneer was quite capable of appraising the quality of the game he killed or the meat he butchered. Our modern city dweller must buy blindly at the butcher shop. A little blue stamp of the Department of Agriculture assures him that he is assuming virtually no risk in so doing. We who live in crowded cities are dependent night and day upon the uninterrupted supply of water, electricity, and transportation services. If the government does not provide these directly, it regulates very closely the private owners who do supply them.

Not only do control and regulation through the state now touch our lives at many points, but the character of governmental activity has changed considerably. A century ago governmental action, like the

The problem of an efficient civil service is of continuing importance in a world where government grows ever more important. Attention to the problem in schools is especially necessary since they must serve as recruiting grounds. The author of this article is Executive Director of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada.

Mosaic code, was principally negative. It forbade various anti-social actions. A service such as that rendered by the Post Office Department was an exception. Negative control is still important, but the positive or service functions of government are constantly increasing in number. The judge and policeman represent the negative side of governmental activity; the engineer, the public health officer, and the social worker represent the positive side.

SPECIALIZATION IN ADMINISTRATION

THE growth in the number of governmental activities and their increasingly positive character have enlarged the administrative branches of our governments. The growth of the federal service illustrates this expansion. Fifty years ago the executive branch of the federal government numbered about 150,000 persons. Today the number is approximately 850,000. In the same period the population of the country has grown from about 60,000,000 to 130,000,000. Thus the federal service has increased more than five-fold while our population has doubled.

The growth in the number of government employees is only one of the significant trends in public administration. Within government service there has been an increasing specialization which parallels the growth in the complexity of our modern civilization. Few governmental functions can now be performed by the "general agent" type of official. Governments must have their professionally and technically trained employees.

NECESSITY FOR A MERIT SYSTEM

THESE aspects of modern administration suggest the importance of a genuine merit system in public service. When government was remote and rarely affected the lives of individual citizens, and when its services were so non-technical that almost anyone of average intelligence could perform them, the methods of recruiting public employees and the conditions of their serv-

ice were relatively unimportant. Today, however, we can neither afford the luxury of a public personnel system which does not make merit the criterion of appointment and advancement, nor countenance the dangers inherent in such a system. It is not alone a question of costly and ineffective public services. Incompetent personnel may involve the safety, health, and well-being of many citizens. A few months ago a citizens' group which was working for a civil service system in a small California city circulated a very effective campaign poster. "You shout, 'Fire,'" it read. "Maybe You're trapped by flames. Who do you want climbing the ladder to get you? A political appointee—or a fireman trained to his job?" This is a very pertinent question for every citizen to answer. Who do you want analyzing your city's water supply? Who do you want appraising your property? Who do you want building a bridge? Who do you want managing a hospital? Who do you want teaching your children? A friend, relative, or political creditor of the local boss? Or the most competent person your community can obtain?

When governments select engineers, doctors, chemists, firemen, policemen, and other officials on the basis of party loyalty or personal favoritism, they are not only wasting the taxpayers' money but gambling with their citizens' lives as well.

BESIDES its worth to us as a group of citizens, the merit system is equally important to us as individuals—as people seeking employment in a field of prestige and practical social usefulness. With almost four million public employees in this country, government is the nation's largest employer. The administrative services of the federal, state, and large municipal governments comprise a cross-section of our working population. They employ laborers and manual workers by the thousand. They require all the skilled and semi-skilled trades—carpenters, plumbers, mechanics, and printers. They fill great office buildings with clerks,

stenographers, typists, and bookkeepers. Every profession is represented: lawyers, chemists, doctors, agronomists, accountants, teachers, journalists, statisticians, librarians, physicists, geologists, biologists, geographers, horticulturists, sociologists, astronomers, architects, and all the rest.

Thousands of young people trained in these professions have a right to look to government for secure and honorable employment. In the past, public service has had only a limited appeal for ambitious, energetic Americans, but this condition is rapidly changing. Our frontiers are now to be found in the development and improvement of our resources and our business and social life. Government must play an important and helpful role in this modern pioneering, since through it we can act cooperatively. Many young people who are eager to participate in this national development will have to do so through some public agency. It is not necessary to emphasize how essential the merit system is if there are to be real careers in government service. The spoils system is the antithesis of a career service. Positions in public service must go, in the first instance, to the most able competitors, and then these people must have opportunities to advance according to their merits.

THE question is occasionally asked, Why have a formal merit system, a civil service system? Why not elect good men to office and trust them to appoint capable subordinates? There are several answers to these questions.

In the first place, it is only through a formal merit system that the permanence of good personnel policies can be assured. Without a merit system based upon legal provisions, a change of elected leaders may bring a complete abandonment of the merit system of a previous administration. Of course it is true that unsympathetic politicians may evade the spirit of a civil service law and damage a merit system that has been established, but this is more difficult than the abandonment of an informal policy to

make good appointments. The chief executive of a governmental unit who prides himself upon his progressive and modern personnel policies would do well to see that these are embodied in law lest they be subverted by less capable successors.

A SECOND reason for preferring formal merit systems to those depending upon the personal policies of elected leaders is found in the fact that many of our governmental services, and even departments within the services, are so large that one man, however well-intentioned, seldom has either the time or the influence to bring about the changes he desires. Thus, for example, a governor may declare that all appointments in the state service during his administration are to be based upon merit and fitness. Yet most of the hiring and firing must be left to subordinates who may place varying interpretations upon the governor's policy. With no legal rules to guide them, and no central personnel agency to administer these rules, the governor's subordinates are likely to be as merit-minded as their own philosophies of administration dictate. In this way many campaign promises and good resolutions are undermined in practice.

IN the third place, formal merit systems are essential to the establishment and continuance of career services in our governments. The young people who have prepared themselves and who are qualified for careers in federal, state, and local governments are entitled to the employment conditions which will permit them to realize these careers. Such conditions only exist permanently under a civil service system. Real careers can not be built in a service where party wheel horses are constantly given preferment, where dismissal for personal or partisan reasons is always in the offing, where employees are harassed for campaign contributions and election duties, and where the positive efforts to build a capable administrative service are neglected or ignored.

GROWTH OF OUR MERIT SYSTEM

AN increasingly large number of administrators, political leaders, public employees, civic groups, and individual citizens are realizing the values to be secured in the adoption and maintenance of sound civil service systems. This rising interest in the merit system has resulted in recent years in the extension of existing civil service systems and the establishment of many new systems.

In the federal government, the year 1938 saw considerable progress after a period in which the proportion of classified employees dropped to about 60 per cent of the total number of employees. Last year Congress passed an act placing approximately 15,000 first-, second-, and third-class postmasters under a modified merit system. By executive order President Roosevelt extended the classified service to include about 45,000 positions previously exempted. The number of classified employees now represents about 70 per cent of all civil employees of the federal government. Future extensions will be the responsibility of Congress as the President's order applied to virtually all positions not exempted by statute. Early in 1939, a committee under the chairmanship of Mr Justice Reed of the Supreme Court was appointed by the President to make a study of the extension of civil service provisions to federal positions of a professional and highly technical character. An executive order of June 24, 1938, called for the establishment of a personnel office in each administrative department and independent agency and provided for the organization of the directors of these offices into a Council of Personnel Administration which will seek to improve the standards of civil service administration in the federal government.

STATE AND LOCAL MERIT SYSTEMS

AT the state level the merit system has made notable progress in the last few years. During 1937 five states—Arkansas, Tennessee, Maine, Connecticut, and Michigan—enacted civil service laws covering a

majority of their administrative employees. The last state which had previously adopted a civil service system was Maryland in 1920. Arkansas repealed its civil service act in 1939, but four other states—Alabama, Rhode Island, New Mexico, and Minnesota—adopted merit systems. Thus at the present time there are seventeen states under civil service. In several states not having statewide civil service systems, departmental merit systems have been adopted. With the advice and assistance of the Federal Social Security Board a number of state departments administering public welfare and unemployment compensation programs have instituted merit systems for their employees. It is probable that in several states these departmental merit systems will prove to be the nuclei around which more extensive programs will be built.

At the end of 1937, according to a census published by the Civil Service Assembly, there were 674 cities, 169 counties, and 5 special districts in the United States with merit systems. Since this enumeration was made, approximately fifty local governments have established civil service systems. In several cities, Cleveland for example, there have been important extensions of the classified service to include employees previously exempted.

CIVIL SERVICE AGENCIES

WHILE the notable gains described above have focused attention upon the extension of the merit system, another significant trend in the public personnel field has been the improvement of administrative policies and practices by established civil service agencies. During the first years of the civil service movement in this country, the approach to public personnel problems was largely a negative one. Civil service agencies considered that their job had ended when they ranked applicants for governmental positions in order of merit and when they had protected employees from the grasping hand of the spoilsman. Some agencies still limit their activities to these

functions of recruitment and the protection of the service from spoils politics. However, an increasingly large number of merit system agencies are approaching the problems of public personnel administration in a positive fashion, and they are giving much more attention to the various aspects of employee management than has usually been done in the past.

Since our public services operate in a political atmosphere, in which partisanship frequently becomes rather bitter, the negative or protective aspects of civil service administration will probably always be important, and the leaders in the field of public personnel administration today are just as insistent upon a politically neutral civil service as were the reformers of fifty or sixty years ago. The recent developments in civil service administration have not been in the direction of weakening the defenses against spoils politics. They have been pointed toward attracting candidates of better quality for public service, providing for the proper classification and remuneration of employees, offering real careers in government service by improving promotional, transfer, and placement methods, and generally trying to improve the conditions of work in administrative departments and the morale of public servants.

GRADUAL GAINS

It is doubtful if any civil service agency is satisfied with the quality of public personnel administration in its jurisdiction and most of them are conscientiously striving to do a better job. Many are handicapped by the tremendous volume of work which they must perform, by inadequate appropriations to carry on their functions, or by ineffective official or public support for the personnel program. Despite such limitations, there are many indications that scores

of public personnel agencies are consistently improving their administrative methods and techniques. Their examination methods are more valid and reliable; their modern classification plans provide the tools for better recruitment and employee management; their compensation plans are designed to give equal pay for equal work; and their promotional and placement practices, systems of service ratings, in-service training programs, retirement plans, and other administrative policies and techniques provide the proper conditions for the development of career services.

These efforts need and deserve the support of all public-spirited citizens. Through the extension of the merit system and the use of constantly improved public personnel methods, long strides may be taken toward achieving the high level of administration that is essential to the efficient conduct of our governmental services.

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Adapting a World History Course to a New Curriculum Proposal

LEON A. WILBER

THE Mississippi curriculum program proposes that for the core of the curriculum teachers should select materials to give experiences in nine "Areas of Human Activity." These are (1) Protecting life and health, (2) Making a home, (3) Conserving and improving material conditions, (4) Cooperating in social and civic action, (5) Getting a living, (6) Securing an education, (7) Expressing religious impulses, (8) Expressing aesthetic impulses, and (9) Engaging in recreation.¹

The experimental course in world history, with which this article is concerned, was developed in the University of Mississippi High School, at Oxford, for use in the tenth grade. The course was organized into four-

¹ *Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction*. Jackson: State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 5, October, 1937, p. 23.

This is a report of an effort to revise a world history course to fit proposals of leaders in a curriculum revision movement in Mississippi. It is presented partly to show how a traditional course can be changed to meet liberal—perhaps even radical—proposals of curriculum revision experts without impairing seriously the value of the course from the viewpoint of a traditional history teacher, and partly to show one method by which a school of limited library resources can enrich its courses. The author is head of the social science department in the University High School, University of Mississippi.

teen units, of which eleven were taken with minor modifications from the official tentative list of the Mississippi program. Units 1, 4, and 13 were added. The full list follows:

1. A survey of ancient and medieval times.
2. The establishment and development of your religion.
3. Developing art and architecture for church and public buildings.
4. A survey of political events from 1648 to 1920.
5. Developing principles of democratic government.
6. Developing a desirable relation between church and state.
7. Determining the influence of governmental leaders in the world today.
8. The peace problem.
9. Using education to promote the government, and the best relationship between education and the government.
10. How to deal with propaganda and advertising.
11. Using wisely the rights of religious freedom, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press.
12. Performing the duties of a citizen in wartime.
13. Historical persons and places frequently referred to in daily life.
14. The history of medicine.

The "areas of human activity" in which the eleven units from the Mississippi program were intended to give experiences were Protecting life and health (unit 14); Cooperating in social and civic action (units

5, 7, 8, 11, and 12); Expressing religious impulses (units 2, 3, and 6); and Securing an education (units 9 and 10).

HISTORY IN THE COURSE

SO that the units from the proposed curriculum might contribute to learning of history as desired by the traditional teacher at the same time that they gave experiences in the areas of human activities as desired by the leaders in the new curriculum movement, materials presented in developing the units were largely taken from history. It might be added that history is probably the most abundant source of materials for such units. In studying the duties of citizens in wartime (unit 12), the class studied the wartime duties of the Spartan, the Athenian, and the medieval serf. In studying the best relationship between education and the government, they studied the history of education in so far as it contributed to the general topic. Of course some topics could not be developed by the exclusive use of historical materials, and non-historical materials were used freely when needed.

Many historical materials used were not included in most history textbooks, for example, materials on history of education and history of medicine. Such materials, however, are just as good history as traditional political and military history, and are probably more useful in life.

Unit 13, dealing with historical persons and places frequently referred to in daily life, did not come from either traditional history or the Mississippi program. It was included on the basis of research reported by Earle Rugg, in his volume on *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship*.²

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

INSTRUCTION in the course was almost entirely individualized, and most class periods were devoted to study. For each unit, every pupil was given a mimeographed

contract. Each contract began with a written explanation of the purposes of the unit. This was followed by an outline to be filled in by the pupil from an introductory lecture or overview given by the teacher. The overview was followed by lists of questions similar to those in most workbooks, to be answered briefly by the pupils as their minimum or "D" requirements on the contract for the unit. Following the questions there were lists of many different kinds of activities from which pupils might select activities leading to higher marks. These latter activities were such as reading, writing short themes, poems, or plays, giving of illustrated lectures to the class, studying pictures, and drawing maps, cartoons, or designs.

Toward the end of each unit a test was given over the minimum requirements. Pupils who failed the test were given individual or group assistance by the teacher until they could pass.

TEACHING MATERIALS

ONE of the most difficult problems in teaching such new topics as are proposed in the changed curriculum is to obtain teaching materials. For example, no high school history text has more than scattered references to the use of propaganda or the history of education, and almost none give adequate treatments of the origin and development of present-day churches or architecture. In this experiment it was found possible to provide a reasonably satisfactory supply of materials at almost no cost to the school itself. Instead of buying a text and workbook as in previous years, each pupil paid a fee of \$1.35 for the year. Cheap but adequate materials were bought with the money. Enough second hand texts were bought for each pupil to have one at any time. Since work was individualized it was not necessary for all books to be alike, and several different varieties were used which was advantageous, because some authors would mention facts others would omit. Some of the books were devoted only to one

² Greeley: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928.

of the units, such as the one on the peace problem. Sixty cents of each fee was saved for mimeographing. By using cheap stencils it was possible to provide a 182-page workbook. When reading materials were especially scarce, as for the units on education, history of medicine, and to a smaller degree for the unit on history of religion, mimeographed summaries of from three to ten pages (single spaced) were provided which gave the pupils most of the information needed for minimum requirements.

OUTCOMES

THE results of the experiment, as far as they were observable, were quite satisfactory. The pupils voted two to one that they liked both the materials and methods used in the course better than traditional textbook materials and methods. In addition, they worked more willingly than they had before. The year before the corresponding class had been very difficult to teach due to disciplinary problems, but during the experiment disciplinary problems almost disappeared, although much informality was

not only permitted but was required by the situation.

Although no careful effort was made to obtain objective evaluation of the course, some data is available. On a test based upon traditional world history, only, the class made a mean score near the end of the year of 72.5. On the same test two classes which were taught two years before by traditional textbook method, made a mean score of 76.5 about five weeks earlier in the year. The class in the experiment was not quite as intelligent as the earlier classes, the mean IQ's being respectively 103.4 and 110.2. In view of the fact that only one seventh of the work in the experimental course (two units out of fourteen) was devoted directly to materials measured by the test, the smallness of the difference between scores is surprising. It would seem that the class lost very little in learning of traditional materials by studying the new problems, and that, if the additional content presented in the new units had any effect at all, the class must have obtained more of value from the course than the classes which were taught by traditional method.

"Method of teaching is conditioned by the public relations of the school. If instruction in the social sciences is to be marked by realism and honesty, the surrounding community must serve as a laboratory for the uncensored study of social life—conflicts, tensions and cases of corruption, as well as trends, achievements and examples of devotion to the public welfare. Today, because of the relative isolation of the school, the timidity and weakness of the profession and the power of vested interests and privileged groups, the teacher seldom dares to introduce his pupils to the truth about American society and the forces that drive it onward" (*Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Scribner, 1934, pp. 75-76).

Unity in the Social Studies

T. H. ROBINSON

THE troubles that afflict the social studies are not unlike the troubles that afflict any of the major areas of human knowledge. The range of human knowledge has expanded far beyond the comprehension of any one man. Learning has been divided into many fields. Each of these fields has been divided again and again.¹ Each has been extended in extraordinary measure by generation after generation of eager scholars. And wayfarers through this maze are obliged to go through the mentally and emotionally disturbing procedure of making choices among too large a number of alternatives.

All this intellectual specialization has been very fruitful. The additions to our knowledge of man in his group relations and activities have been and continue to be little short of phenomenal. Here, as in other aspects of human endeavor, it pays to specialize. However, our job as teachers and administrators in a school system is one of

¹ See the stimulating discussion in Robert S. Lynd, *Knowledge for What?* Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press, 1939.

Secondary schools, junior colleges, and colleges are more and more concerned with "general education"—with meanings, synthesis, and relationships. An assistant professor of economics in Colgate University describes the effort of his institution to meet the most difficult problem now faced by social studies teachers at all levels of instruction.

guidance, not discovery. We are concerned more with showing the way to accepted and clearly marked destinations than we are with carving out new destinations. Our job is to lay out routes, to provide the appropriate accommodations, and to assist, not dictate, in the choice among existing alternative destinations.

We have succeeded in laying out roads and paths to an understanding of man in his social activities, but we have not, because of the way in which these thoroughfares have been planned, made it easy to know our social life as a whole. All too often, our students have been left to wander aimlessly among the trees with little conception of what the woods as a whole are like.

DEMAND FOR INTEGRATION

It is this situation that tempts us to ask whether the intellectual division of labor that has been so fruitful in adding to our knowledge is the most effective pattern on which to base our instruction, particularly in the great and complicated field of the social studies.

Many others besides ourselves have raised this same question. We hear the cry for integration in this field and for synthesis in that. Unity, we must have unity, is the keynote of the chorus that comes from the souls lost in the academic wilderness. Accordingly there has been both widespread effort to develop a body of social science generalizations and a related experimentation with new types of courses and new kinds of curricula throughout our educational system.

THE TASK OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

PERHAPS we should approach our problem from the point of view of what we want our students to know. It may be that I am guilty of academic treason, but I suggest that we do not want our students, other than prospective specialists, to know about economics, about history, about politics, or about sociology. Rather, we do want them to know about and to understand the groups, the community, and the social world in which they live and of which each is a part. The social studies are thus means, not ends. They are roads to destinations, not destinations themselves.

I take it for granted that in the social studies we are trying to develop an understanding of how men live and behave in group relations; and that this is the point of view from which we should attempt to build our courses and curricula. I assume that man's social life, social in the broad sense of the term, is a highly organized existence, that men live in interdependent relations with each other, that these relations are so arranged that they fit like the parts of a jig-saw puzzle, that these relations are multi-form, and that, in reality, they are not separable in the sense in which we separate them for study in our various academic disciplines—that, as has been said, "Life is a unit."

The task of the social studies, then, is to demonstrate the unity of living. And, when we talk about unity in the social studies, I assume that what we have in mind is some body of subject matter that will demonstrate this unity. Stated in this fashion, our problem is no longer that of synthesizing discipline, but of organizing subject matter appropriate to our purposes.

Courses and curricula organized from this point of view, obviously, will vary according to local circumstances. There is no one answer or happy combination of topics that will suit every situation. Nevertheless, I should like to present a brief résumé of the program we have developed at Colgate University as a result of our experience. I venture to do so in the hope that what we have

done may be suggestive for those who have similar problems.

THE COLGATE PROGRAM

COLGATE'S answer to the problem of unity in the social studies is a four-year program: a one-semester survey course in the freshman year; a year course in history, and one-semester courses in economics, politics, sociology, logic, and statistics in the sophomore year; and concentration in an approved combination of related courses, related, that is, in the sense that they concern common problems, in one or in more than one of the social science disciplines. As an illustration, a student interested in international affairs might take, in successive semesters, six hour units in modern world history, recent American history, international trade, and international law. The climax is a comprehensive examination at the end of the senior year. Currently, this examination is a departmental affair, but there is some sentiment in favor of broadening it to cover related social studies courses.

Since it is in the freshman year that the problem of developing an appreciation of the unity in our social order is more nearly akin to the problems with which public school teachers and administrators are faced, I shall confine my remarks to our freshman program in the social studies.

Colgate is committed to a program of general education through survey courses, four of which, the physical sciences, the biological sciences, the social sciences, and philosophy and religion, are taken in the freshman year, and one, the fine arts, is taken in the sophomore year. Together, these courses are designed to provide an acquaintance with the more important fields of knowledge, to stimulate any interest the students possess or may acquire, and to afford a basis on which the choice of subsequent study may be made.

Each survey course has its own objectives in addition to those common to all. Thus the survey course in social science aims (1)

to develop an appreciation of our society as an organized "going concern," (2) to make clear some of the outstanding characteristics of modern social organization in the United States, (3) to show some of the more important control aspects of modern social organization, and (4) to point out the nature of social change and social problems.

SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION

THE selection and organization of topics and materials with which to accomplish these objectives are based on a number of considerations, the product of several years of experience. First, only a few of the available topics are discussed. No "survey" in our field that pretended to be other than a tabulation could be presented otherwise. Perhaps the term "survey" used in connection with this course is misleading. Probably the term "exploratory" would be more appropriate. In any case, only a few selected topics are examined. Yet the objectives are nonetheless attainable through this sampling procedure.

Second, the topics chosen have been selected so that they fit into an organization possessing internal unity and coherence. When it is desired to show that our society is an organized "going concern," it is reasonable to expect that the medium through which this view is presented should itself possess organization. The course, accordingly, has an "organizing theme" which may be stated briefly as follows. People have needs. No person satisfies all his needs by his own unaided efforts. Practically everyone contributes something toward meeting the needs of others as well as his own. These contributions are organized and controlled, that is, they precede, accompany, or follow one another in the manner necessary to achieve the desired results. This organization and control are both informal and formal. However, neither the organization nor the control is perfect. Moreover, both the organization and the control change frequently. Social problems, that is to say, prob-

lems of social disorganization, arise out of this situation. In turn, these social problems give rise to proposals, some conservative and some radical, for social reorganization.

Third, the topics and the illustrative materials have been selected, as far as is consistent with the objectives and organization of the course, with an eye to student interest.

Fourth, and this we regard as important, the normal as well as the abnormal features of our society are presented. This procedure represents a departure from some of the dominant trends in present-day course construction. Indeed, we have received a number of critical comments on this part of our policy, especially from those who are deeply concerned about social problems, such as unemployment, poverty, crime, broken homes, indigent old age, political corruption, and war. There can be no doubt that such problems are fascinating subjects for study. There can be no doubt that they present a challenge to prompt and intelligent social action. Why not, we are asked, tackle these problems at once?

It may be assumed that interest in these problems springs from a genuine desire to do something about them, not from a desire to be entertained or thrilled on an academic roller coaster. We agree that something ought to be done about these problems, that we ought to adopt remedies that are effective.

We are, however, strongly of the opinion that a knowledge of society derived primarily from a study of pathological conditions is not a sound basis on which to make recommendations to restore a healthy condition. Intelligent generalizations and recommendations of policy regarding social problems are possible only if the whole setting in which the problems exist is understood. Unless the characteristics of a normal, healthy society are fully appreciated, the efforts of well-meaning, but "societally" illiterate, reformers may succeed only in making a bad situation worse.

PERSPECTIVE AND BALANCE

NOW you probably would like to know how we translate these rather glittering generalities into the solid reality of subject matter, organization, and emphasis.

First, then, as to subject matter. There is nothing new in the content of our course. All the materials have been taken from standard and easily accessible sources.

Second, as to organization. Part I, which we call "Perspective," is a presentation of the more important features of our social order, features that are encountered no matter what aspect of the social order is under consideration. Specifically, we discuss specialization, organization, groups, folkways, mores, codes, law, institutions, culture, and the social significance of communication.

In Parts II, III, IV, and V we drop down from the abstractions of perspective to the realities of economic, domestic, political, and educational organization in our social order. In Part VI, we try to show that these realities are changing by invention, diffusion, and borrowing; and that these changes give rise to social disorganization in the form of social problems, such as unemployment, poverty, broken homes, ineffective political organization, and irrational acceptance of the ideas of pressure groups. In Part VII, we discuss social reorganization as the constructive response to the problems of social disorganization. This constructive response takes two forms: one, an extension of the powers and responsibilities of democratically controlled government; and two, the adoption of a new form of social order on a totalitarian basis, such as fascism, nazism, and communism.

Third, as to emphasis. Our students tell us that most of the facts that we use as illustrative material in Part I already are familiar to them. Our reply is that we had expected that to be the case. Then we ask them if there is not something besides a knowledge of the facts that is important. By this approach we try to get them to understand that the relations among the facts are

as important as the facts themselves, and that, in studying about the social order, these relations are very important.

When we discuss economic organization in our social order, we take pains to develop an understanding of the pattern according to which a system of free private enterprise is supposed to operate to achieve the maximum results claimed for it. Only by so doing can the students appreciate that the activities of a trade union may be no whit different in their effects than the policies of a monopolistic business enterprise; that price inflexibility has much the same consequences whether the inflexibility is due to custom, the policies of a business enterprise, the standard rate of a trade union, a protective tariff, a minimum wage and maximum hour law, or to the powerful appeal which modern advertising makes to the consumer. The end result of this inflexibility is the allocation of productive resources to other than their most efficient uses.

In studying political organization we try to make it clear that the problems of government are not unique to the formal agencies of local, state, and federal governments. The problem of government—that is to say, the determination of policies and the administration of these policies—is common to all organized groups. The modern corporation, for example, is a political as well as an economic unit. It has its voters, its policy-making agency, and its administration. And the problems of determining the most satisfactory relationships of authority and responsibility in the modern corporation are very little different from the same problems in the modern state. A local school district is a political as well as an educational unit.

It is by treatment and emphases such as these that we try to get our students to see something of the oneness of this seemingly chaotic, disjointed Leviathan that is our social order and in which there is vastly more unity and organization than a great many persons are willing to concede.

Group Activity in the Elementary School

MARCELLA MASON

THE old plan of classroom teaching with every child sitting stiffly all day long in his assigned seat in the straight unalterable rows, with everyone reading the same pages in the same books at the same time, and writing answers to the identical questions regardless of ability or need, is now emphatically discredited. We try to look, instead, upon each child as an individual in his own right. Large class enrollments, however, which make it difficult to give adequate attention to each child's growth, individual interests, abilities, and needs, are hard for teachers to escape. Hence the good teacher frequently finds it best to work with small groups.

POSSIBILITIES OF SMALL GROUPS

THE first criterion of successful group management within a classroom must be the teacher's way of thinking. It is her thorough understanding of the entire situation that enables her to see the needs of the class. She is aware of the several bases for organizing the groups by arranging for reading, research, investigative study, and reporting back to the class; for working out creative activities of either an illustrative or a constructive type; and for needs in the

remedial areas. She knows the media of interests through which groups function, and the consequent types of expression which each medium may worthily sponsor. The good teacher recognizes the child's right to a personality, his right to achieve a success which will be satisfying to him, and his right to develop and extend his abilities.

GROUPS FOR SKILLS

THE very nature of remedial work dictates the feasibility of a small group. Only a few children will be deficient in the same skill and in the same way. These lacks will rarely be alike in the same degree, but they may possess identity in the nature of the disability. Hence remedial needs may be similar.

Drill is also most effective when carried on with only a few children at one time. There will always be those who need special drill on the multiplication facts or number facts of any of the fundamentals, and one child may easily work with a few others to establish these facts. The leader in this case should be a child who is sure of the information and able to keep a record of the progress of those in his group.

GROUPS FOR INTERESTS

STILL another need for small groups presents itself in relation to activities which are a part of a specific unit of study. It is here that a more varied and all-around development of the child can manifest itself. The children are not drafted into any particular group. They are free to choose the one dealing with work and activities in

Meeting individual needs in large classes is always a problem. An instructor in elementary education at the University of Nebraska considers here both the values and most effective procedures in group study.

which they are most interested. The teacher must see that the same children are not always together in the same group, and that one type of activity such as reading, writing, or construction, is not always chosen by the same children. Each child should be given an opportunity to serve in different capacities within the groups and in so doing have practice in leadership.

WE have long been told that the practical application of material learned tends to make for easier retention. Groups may use the knowledge acquired from various subject fields in many types of expression. Elementary science, for example, is rich in the natural phenomena highly attractive to children. Their efforts at understanding are evident in countless experiments which they perform to help ascertain the hows and whys of it all.

ENGLISH, reading, and literature are prolific sources of dramatic activity for group work. Children in one group may plan to write an original play, and other groups may assist in designing and making the costumes and scenery. The dramatic scene should also allow for pantomimes and dramatization of stories which a literature group may find particularly interesting. All children thoroughly enjoyed doing "Barney Blue Eye's Baby" and "The Hare and the Hedgehog." Plays need not always have costumes and scenery. Good dramatic interpretation is much more valuable. If, however, costumes and scenery are used in the elementary school, they should be simple. Children find much pleasure in selecting, arranging, and working out poetry and prose material for choral reading presentations. The arts provide group activity in construction, painting of murals, friezes, and interpretations through rhythms.

The social studies are likewise rich in suitable content for group study. Reports and varied illustrative projects prepared by the group are valid evidences of the reading

and organization which have preceded the presentation. Groups may also contribute to assembly programs which, like all other programs, should involve the entire class in planning and organizing. Radio activities and interviews may also be group enterprises.

TEACHER RESPONSIBILITIES

THERE are definite problems confronting the classroom teacher who works with groups. There may be four or five different groups in as many parts of the room and she must try to be with each group at some time during the working period. In this situation she will find it helpful to check briefly with the group leaders before class to see that each one has a real job to do and knows how his group is to carry it out without constant teacher supervision.

There is also the problem of the child who refuses to work congenially with the others. An antidote for this is to have him work alone until he feels that he can again cooperate with working companions.

Although movable seats are easily arranged for group work, the straight rows of screwed down desks and chairs may also be used to advantage. Each room should possess a large table so that groups doing flat work on large maps or illustrations may have an adequate surface on which to spread materials. A smooth section of the floor is also excellent for working on large pieces.

The purposes of such participation are several, but most important of all is the growth of the child. He should come to feel and assume responsibility willingly, to be socially agreeable with others, to make judicious choices, to be neither a dominating nor a recessive person, to be fair, to cooperate as well as share, to consider others, to recognize and commend abilities in others, and in turn to be appreciated by them. Something of infinite value in emotional satisfaction takes place in a child when he finds he can do things and that he is of worth to others.

Social Viewpoint in Conservation Education

W. P. BEARD

THE teacher who sees the forest rather than the trees recognizes conservation of natural resources as one of the important areas of living. The teacher who thinks conservation education is synonymous with nature study or consists entirely of such activities as putting a bell on the cat or identifying a few trees in the schoolyard is still "in the woods."

Educational material should give the proper interpretation of the conservation of natural resources and show the significant relation to conservation of human resources. Some of the scope and sequence charts place all phases of conservation in the persistent problem or function of "protecting life, health and our natural resources." Protection is a part of conservation, but only a part. Much of conservation of the natural resources relates to the function of "earning a living." When so allocated in our thought, the dependence of man on natural resources is more likely to be recognized. We should realize also that conservation of natural resources means nothing except in terms of man. Soil, trees, grasses, minerals, and wildlife are important only as they contribute

Teachers, textbooks, and the general public have come to recognize conservation as an urgent problem of our time. This discussion of conservation education comes from the educational specialist in the Division of Information and Education of the Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

to human needs and well being. It is man's use of a resource that gives it value.

Conservation means more than saving or protecting. Among those who deal with the natural resources the word "conserving" covers developing and intelligently using as well as protecting. If educators use one meaning of the term and foresters, soil conservationists, wildlife specialists, and others dealing with natural resources use another, our teaching will lead to a good deal of confusion.

CONSERVATION DEFINED

FURTHER to clarify our thought on conservation let us briefly review the conditions under which the term was brought into general use by President Theodore Roosevelt and his Chief Forester, Gifford Pinchot. The first forest reserves, now the national forests, had been established. Roosevelt and Pinchot were zealous and successful in extending these reserves, and eager to obtain the best use of these natural resources for the benefit of the public as a whole. The policy of selling timber from the reserves had been established. Soon came the problem of making available other resources of the national forests—grazing, minerals, and water for irrigation and power. The problems in connection with their use were seen to be closely interrelated. In fact, there was one big problem. Deliberately the leaders set about to find a word to cover their policy—wise use of all resources for the greatest good to the greatest number. Conservation was the word chosen.

Our understanding of the term may be

clarified still further by considering some related terms. Exploitation is sometimes used as an opposite of conservation, but it does not necessarily mean unwise use. When we intend to convey that idea, some adjective such as wasteful should be used with exploitation to describe the use more accurately. Devastation is a good antonym and may be used to denote the results of a catastrophe, such as forest fire that destroys the resource, or man's abuse and misuse that produces equivalent destruction. The term liquidation is applicable to much of our American disregard for the future of our resources both natural and human. It connotes the fact that economic pressure often forces owners to turn their resources into money regardless of the future.

HUMAN VS NATURAL RESOURCES

THE human resource in great areas of our country has been drawn upon to answer for the deficiency in the natural resource. But nature balances her books relentlessly. Many of these unfortunate people who have been forced to pay in human values are no more to blame than the rest of us. They are victims of the American plan of liquidation. Some of these people found themselves stranded after a lumbering operation and they could not wait for a new forest to grow that they might have timber for sale. They turned to farming and soon found the land unfit for farm crops. The soil was productive for a few years because of the residual organic matter, but soon that along with much of the fertile top soil were gone. In some cases fire seemed to stimulate the growth of grass for livestock, but in reality it merely hastened the process of soil depletion. A vicious downward spiral started. It matters not now whether it started with the human resource or the natural resource—with the hen or the egg. Profitable production soon dwindled to subsistence; subsistence to mere existence; poor food, clothing, and shelter brought on ill health, indolence, and discouragement—and out went educational

facilities and moral standards. The spiral descent has a momentum so great that without help from other sources. Nature will close the books with the last inhabitant of such areas.

These people are not confined to devastated forest areas alone. Some are miners on mined-out veins. Some are cattlemen on over-grazed plains. Some are fishermen on fished-out waters. Some are farmers on farmed-out soil. The problem is not so much what will we do for lumber a hundred years from now as it is what can be done with the people now living in poverty and disease because the forest from which they made their living has been devastated. Conservation is a current need, not one of the distant future only. Submarginal patches of human and natural resources are the first signs of a malady that will spread unless there is constructive action.

SOME nations temporarily disguise a general affliction of depleted resources by going to war to capture them from others. Our resources, fortunately, are for the most part still intact. Much of our soil is still productive, and some more of it can be made productive. Our forests though severely abused can be restored to furnish livelihood for hundreds of thousands. Our grass lands, streams, and wildlife may still be restored to productivity. Our achievement in this country to date has been largely the result of liquidation of natural resources. We must not make the mistake of thinking that we can continue on the same basis.

The old farmer who complained that a big crop was hard on the soil was partly right, but not entirely. He did not understand that high production does not necessarily mean liquidation of a resource. High productivity often means that conservation is made possible, and the wise owner makes the investment then. He does not wait until production becomes unprofitable. It is the crop produced on submarginal land that does not return enough to give a margin to permit restoration of fertility. It is the

abused forest from which every sapling has to be cut to make the operation pay or break even. The best time to start conservation is when the resource is productive. But for many resources that time has passed.

OUR urbanization and commerce have possibly led us to believe that we can maintain civilization independent of our soils, forests, minerals, and grasses. Concentration of people in cities has removed two-thirds of our population from direct contact with the basic natural resources. Commerce has broadened the area of available resources so that one part of the country can maintain itself on the resources of another part or of another country. There comes a time, however, when both the resource and commerce disappear. If each person had to live on what he produced on a given piece of land, many would soon be victims of their own failure to practice conservation. But today we have no such individual responsibility. We must look at conservation not as the problem of the individual, but as the concern of the group.

WHEN the Forest Service was given the administration of certain national forests created from second-growth forest land, thousands of people living on these lands were, along with the natural resources, well down the spiral. Some of these people have since been provided with part-time employment as fire guards or in other forest work; they have been shown how to make certain sanitary improvements and thus have been given a first push up the spiral. This has been mentioned only to indicate that an agency, even though primarily charged with administering natural resources, must recognize the dependent human resources as an integral part of the responsibility.

We can not solve the problem by attention only to the restoration of the renewable natural resources nor only to the restoration of the human resource. We cannot catapult people over the ground they have lost faster

than the restoration of their natural resources takes place. Nor can we catapult the natural resources and physical surroundings to restoration and expect the human resources to improve simultaneously and automatically. Just as the natural and human resources spiraled downward together they must spiral upward together.

Whether it was by chance or because of inferior native ability or lack of education that our lower one-third has landed where it is, is debatable. Probably all three factors are responsible for the present condition. Whether our devastated resources, human and natural, can be restored, however, will depend not on chance but on education—conservation of the human resource.

EDUCATION FOR CONSERVATION

THERE are important differences in education for conservation of human resources and conservation of natural resources. Every person is a human-resource unit and therefore may be assumed to be a potential subject for conservation. He may be expected to have a first hand, active interest in himself, whether it be a matter of health, mental or moral capacity. To be effective such education must be concerned in the end with development of habits both physical and mental. Education dealing with the conservation of the human resource consists of a group of persistent personal problems: How can I attain better health? How can I find the best vocation for my abilities? How can I develop my personality? How can I avoid injury of my own body?

EDUCATION in the conservation of natural resources must vary with groups of people according to their different interests and experiences. About two-thirds of our population live without direct contact with natural resources. For them education concerning the conservation of natural resources is impersonal, and must primarily develop attitudes rather than habits. True, these people may feed birds and keep off the grass, but that is hardly the kind of con-

servation that will keep our soil from washing away, our forests from being liquidated and burned, and the other one-third of our people from unjustifiably low standards of living. Certainly the two-thirds should be taught to hunt and fish legally and not to set the forests on fire, but comparatively few members of this group come into contact with natural resources in this way and fewer still do any harm.

WHAT should be the nature of conservation education for this great group of people to whom natural resources are so remote? It should develop attitudes and understandings which will enable every good citizen to actively support or censure what public agencies are doing with the natural resources. In turn he will realize what kind of cooperation should exist between the state and the private individual who owns some of these resources.

The education in conservation of natural resources of the one-third of our people who depend directly upon them for a living may

be approached in somewhat the same way as is education in human resources—from the standpoint of personal interests. Attitudes, of course, but of more importance specific training is needed to develop habits and skills in particular fields for this group. The farmer needs to know how to prevent erosion and maintain soil fertility. He needs to know not only what crops but also what varieties to grow. The woods owner has to know which trees to cut for fuel, which for pulp, which for timber, which land to reforest and which to use as open pasture so he will not think he has to “burn the woods” to provide pasture. The persons who are responsible for our fish and game must learn how to manage these resources well. This one-third needs habits, skills, and abilities, backed by understanding—a functional education. These people on the land need plenty of training in the function of “earning a living” without destroying the basic resources on which they earn it. They must realize that it takes a more capable person to conserve than to liquidate.

The Commission deems desirable the most efficient use of material endowment, technical arts, and productive skills in raising the standard of living of all and in achieving the finest cultural potentialities resident in the American people in their historic and world setting. A survey of the advance of technology in particular reveals clearly the possibility of the realization of this goal in the proximate future by the application of appropriate and existing knowledge, methods, and energies—physical and moral.

Achievements such as domestic architecture, housing, health, and education, city, regional, state, and national planning and operation, already accomplished in particular areas, indicate the possibility, as well as the desirability, of creating a civilization in the United States which combines utility and aesthetics in a grand conception of the potentialities in American life (*Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Scribner, 1934, pp. 20-21).

The New Education in Mexico

GEORGE C. BOOTH

THE question is sometimes asked: Why did Mexico adopt and organize a system which is officially called "socialist education"? The socialist school system, set up in 1933, aims to meet the needs of the Mexican people, and its leaders declare that it is well designed to fit the social and economic needs of the people. To substantiate this statement they offer a materialist interpretation of their history and data compiled from an economic and social survey of the republic.

THE GENESIS OF SOCIAL THEORY

LET us look briefly at the historical and anthropological bases of the system and then examine the educational structure that has been started. Much has been made of the revolution of 1910 in the contemporary educational writing. The reason for this is simple. The philosophy of socialist education is definitely the child of the revolution. More than that, the revolution is a symbol of the protest of Mexico's people against all that the pre-revolutionary society embodied.

In the midst of reports on the war across the ocean we are perhaps too prone to forget Mexico's problems on our own continent and her attempts to solve them. In this article a teacher in Long Beach Junior College at Long Beach, California, discusses the "why" and "how" of Mexico's new educational system with its Mexican background and social theory.

For this reason, today's schools represent an attempt to replace old institutions by new ones useful to all the people.

FOR four hundred years Mexico had been hag-ridden with vice, revolution, hypocrisy, sham, and glitter. From the very beginning the situation has been the same. Many of Spain's adventurers came to the New World not to found a new empire as a future home for themselves and their children, but to loot the country as rapidly as possible before returning to Spain to live in luxury and ease. This kind of Spaniard betrayed the confidence of the people, violated their women brazenly, and forcibly destroyed much that the natives held virtuous and sacred. The Spaniards divided the land among themselves and enslaved the population.

In such circumstances the church seemed to offer the only refuge to the harried natives, and they gave their trust to it. Soon, however, they found themselves with a new set of masters. They were forced to give to the church and her officers a tenth of the poor living that was left to them. They labored without pay on the princely edifices that soon rose throughout the country. They found themselves saddled with a foreign religion, conducted in foreign languages, which meant nothing to them in their every-day living. Moreover another fear was added to their already overlong list—the ever-present terror of excommunication and hell fire that served to keep them in submission to church and state.

Little was done by Mexico's Spanish mas-

ters to improve the country or to raise the moral and intellectual level of the people, which, as a consequence, deteriorated as the years passed. The Mexican was encouraged to believe absurd legends and to continue the practice of paganism and magic under the guise of religion. The church officially declared the Indian to be without reason and, therefore, incapable of development. Few industries were introduced, many being forbidden to the colony by law, since the mother country wanted a monopoly on certain activities. Mulberries, winegrapes, and tobacco were only a few of the agricultural products the colony was forbidden to produce. More than sixty different income-producing levies were imposed on Mexico by Spain. It is small wonder that the Spaniards who lived in Mexico finally grew tired of seeing the golden stream flow from the New World to the old, and staged a successful revolution.

AFTER ten years of fighting, Mexico cut the umbilical cord in 1821, but independence did little to change the status of the Indian and those of mixed Indian blood. At this time a new struggle began for the economic mastery of the country, a struggle that was to last for another hundred years and was to use the Mexican "common man" only as a pawn. This struggle took place between the church and state, and it has not yet been settled. The Roman Catholic Church owned half or more of the wealth of the country by this time, and the leaders in the country's political life began to cast covetous eyes upon this hoard. Laws were passed to nationalize much of this wealth, buildings of certain orders were confiscated, and the power of the clergy was curtailed.

DURING the nineteenth century the nation suffered, as the robber barons fought for possession of its vast wealth. One faction fought another for control of the government and its attendant perquisites. The United States took five eighths of Mexico's territory in the Mexican War. For a

time Great Britain controlled the customs of Vera Cruz. France set up a puppet government under Maximilian, and for a brief time a brilliant, feverish gaiety overlay the vast sickness that was Mexico. With the overthrow of Maximilian, Benito Juárez attempted a reform government. After his death, Porfirio Díaz seized control and ruled almost continuously from 1876 until 1911. Each of these changing circumstances has operated to make Mexico poorer and to involve her deeper in problems that are all but insoluble.

Díaz attempted to extract the last pound of flesh, the final drop of blood, from the country. He and his clique sold out completely to foreign investors. British and American capitalists received incalculable concessions. Díaz sold the natural resources outright in return for personal fortunes for himself and his favorites. Railroads, mines, oil rights, power, and land were turned over to foreigners, often in violation of the constitution, until three fourths of the natural wealth of Mexico was owned by these foreigners.

At the same time, the condition of the people was becoming unendurable. The last of their personal holdings, village lands, and finally what might be considered bare human rights were torn from them. A system of forced labor and peonage grew to such proportions that thousands of the people of the country were virtual slaves. Illiteracy mounted until it included 90 per cent of the population. When Madero raised the standard of revolt in 1910, the nation went with him, and he won with practically no opposition.

Yet Madero, the people soon found, was not the Moses who was to lead them to the promised land. Mexico had no leaders who understood the true needs of the country. As a consequence, one proclamation followed another as demagogues raised fresh rebellions against other revolutionary generals. Each military chief had his own "plan" for the salvation of the country.

Gradually these "plans" led to a more sin-

cere and practical formulation of social ideology. Thoughtful men studied revolutionary and economic systems throughout the world and slowly built up a national sentiment that resulted in the constitution of 1917. This constitution provided for nationalization of the natural resources of the country so that all the people could share the nation's wealth. Labor was protected from undue exploitation, and perhaps the most advanced provision of the constitution was Article 3, providing for a national system of free, lay, public schools.

GROWTH OF EDUCATION

REALISTIC educational advances were made in the early 1920's by José Vasconcelos, secretary of education under President Álvaro Obregón. More than 50,000,000 pesos were expended on education in 1921, seven times the amount of any previous year's school budget. John Dewey's theories of the "activity school" were followed at first. Progressively a more unusual kind of school was developed to answer the needs of Mexico. The Roman Catholic Church fought the schools at every turn, declaring that a monopoly on education was their prerogative.

PRESIDENT Obregón was murdered by a Catholic fanatic, and a series of bloody uprisings were staged by the *cristeros*, or "followers of Christ." Sporadic fighting lasted for eight years in which the *cristeros* burned schools and mutilated and murdered school teachers. This seditious activity so handicapped the government that the educational budget was reduced drastically. In retaliation for the activities of the fanatics in fighting the government's program a firm stand was taken against the church. The government adopted the "Plan Sexenal" or six-year plan in 1933. At the same time the schools were officially named the socialist schools of Mexico.

Article 3 of the constitution of 1917 was amended to exclude all private and religious schools that did not come under the direct

supervision of the government. Education was reaffirmed as being free and obligatory. The primary aim of the school was to provide an education that would be scientific, rational, and opposed to fanaticism. Science thus became the cornerstone of the educational structure.

SOCIAL EMPHASIS

THE socialist school is considered as being primarily a social institution to prepare younger generations for a new society. Moreover, the school helps to mold the new society by taking the lead in bringing modern techniques to the people of Mexico. Thus the school teacher leads the people of the community in improving their living conditions. He teaches them to build better houses, to filter drinking water, to clean up unsanitary spots in the community, and to set up a better dietetic standard.

The teacher organizes laborers into guilds and unions so they can work for better laboring conditions; he explains the constitutional rights of the citizen and helps him assert these rights. The teacher shows the farmer how to obtain land that is legally his and then assists the farmers in organizing an agricultural credit bank and obtaining money from the government to buy animals and modern equipment. After the farmer has acquired tools the teacher shows him how to use them in an efficient way, so that he can increase his production and thus raise his standard of living.

CHILDREN are not only taught to become more efficient producers. They are also taught to live and work together cooperatively without thought of exploiting one another. Every effort is made to teach and inspire them to exploit nature as thoroughly as possible, but not mankind. Academic learning is incidental to learning socially useful techniques. Artistic training is an integral part of the curriculum. Art, music, and dancing are taught for their socializing values, so that students learn through those mediums to work together as

a mental and physical unit. The arts serve another purpose in conveying graphically the gospel of socialism: brotherhood of man, equality of all individuals and races, and the right of all to lead a free, happy life. Physical education has become one of the modern Mexican school's important contributions to the country. Playgrounds are maintained throughout the land for the enjoyment of citizens of all ages and classes. The desire of the educator is to divorce the Mexican from his old life, drinking, gambling, fighting, cock-fighting, and pagan ritualistic worship, and to wed him to a new life of proper diet, healthful games, dances, and friendly community intercourse.

INDIVIDUAL GROWTH

THE ideal of the socialist school is to raise every citizen of Mexico, Indian, mixed blood, or Caucasian, to his capacity or saturation point, socially, morally, and mentally. Individuals are not considered as having equal capacity for advance, but it is believed that the older society of Mexico did not give 95 per cent of the people a chance even to approach their potential level of development. On the contrary, it is believed that society in the past has had a brutalizing effect on the individual and has made him an economic slave, a dullard intellectually, and an immoral follower of rituals. To correct this fault, the Mexican leaders hope to extend the schools until every child can continue his education far enough to develop to the very limit of his own ability. This may make him a farmer, a mechanic, an artisan, a musician, a writer, or a school teacher, but whatever he becomes it is expected to be the best that his innate ability will allow him to be.

TO carry this education to all the people a vast system of elementary schools is being organized in Mexico. Starting from practically nothing in 1920, the school system reached the point in 1938 of having more than fifteen thousand elementary schools. New schools, according to the "*Plan*

Sexenal," are being added at the rate of two thousand yearly. This rapid rate of increase makes it impossible to provide well trained teachers, and, therefore, the secretariat of education sends out traveling cultural missions to continue and supplement the training of teachers. These missions set up an eight-weeks institute in the various districts, not only conducting the school in the approved fashion for the guidance of the teacher but also offering academic and philosophical courses to him. In addition the mission supervises cleaning up the community, vaccinating children and adults, teaching mothers improved methods of child care, and teaching craftsmen better techniques in their occupations.

MEXICO'S Indian population is not being overlooked in the work of redeeming the proletariat. The Indian is given better land to farm and a better opportunity to develop his culture. Many of the artistic activities of the country are being reoriented in the light of indigenous culture. Arts and music particularly are dropping the artificial overlay of European influence and going directly to the native sources for new inspiration and for a truly national expression. Schools are being provided rapidly for the Indian, with teachers who understand him and speak his language, but he is also being taught Spanish so that the country may have a unified people through the use of a national language. Every effort is being made to stimulate the native culture, practically stifled since the coming of the Spaniard. Centers of Indian education have been established in the Indian districts, in which the young men and women live in an environment as nearly that of the socialist community as it is possible to make it. The youth are taught to use modern tools and machinery for their agriculture, to understand the theory of a modern society, and to raise their indigenous life-patterns to higher levels. The Indian had many activities in his society before the coming of the Spaniard that were akin to those of the so-

cialist state. These are to be strengthened and retained. For instance, common land and especially common pasture land has been maintained by the Indian against tremendous opposition up to the present day. Under such an organization the group owns land communally, and the individual receives a share proportionate to his need. This custom is similar to the socialist plan of cooperative farming. When the young Indian leaves the center, he usually builds himself a home nearby and puts into practice the lessons he has learned. Thus the Indian is integrated into a modern world.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

WHEN one attempts to judge the actual functioning of the socialist schools of Mexico, he is immediately faced with contradictory impressions. A picture of the scores of modern school plants scattered over Mexico, filled with healthy, intelligent children, imbues the observer with enthusiasm. On the other hand, glimpses of half-wild little savages in abandoned convents and adobe buildings leaves one quite depressed. A true estimate of the situation is not obviously apparent. Probably the truth lies somewhere in between as usual.

Human beings are pretty well alike the world over. The members of the teaching staff of Mexico's schools, the inspectors, and the directors are not a homogeneous body of socialists, agreed in their methodology. The system is supposed to be flexible enough to be changed as conditions change and as new leaders with more advanced training come along. Many teachers are trying to change the system to fit their own whims at all times. Within the official family are many teachers not in accord with the objectives as laid down by the secretariat of education. To this writer the leaders in Mexico City appear to be almost uniformly of a high type, morally, intellectually, and socially,

and they seem bursting with enthusiasm, but as he visits schools on all levels he constantly finds the pedestrian, routinized teacher conducting class in a manner typical of education of a past era. It is not to be overlooked, either, that many things Mexico is doing, and feels she has discovered, have been done well and quite generally in the United States and elsewhere in the world.

THE important fact that one must keep in mind, however, is that Mexico is building schools. Poor schools can be improved and weak teachers can either be strengthened while in service or later replaced with stronger ones. Socialist education is not a theoretical plan that exists on paper only or an emasculate philosophy that is argued by cloistered savants. It is a program of action, formulated and reformulated by strong men and women who constantly live the theory they advocate. School teachers who have lived and taught for months with a pistol always strapped on their hips are not inclined to be overly theoretical. Every point discussed at an institute or regional meeting represents a living experience to these people. Every month, almost every day, the program is being altered to meet actual practice. Every day more schools are being erected. Every day more children are entering school who would never have had an opportunity to go to any school under the old regime.

And that is all the observer can report on the system objectively. Mexico is providing schools for her children; she is sincerely trying to make these schools the best that can be provided; and she is constantly trying to improve them. Only time can tell whether or not they will accomplish redemption of a race that has seldom known anything but tyranny, oppression, and exploitation.

Twentieth Century Fund

RAYMOND T. RICH

EXPLORATION in the social sciences is one of America's new frontiers. The Twentieth Century Fund, founded in 1919 by the late Edward A. Filene for the purpose of "promoting the public welfare," is pioneering in this field with a new concept of the responsibilities of a research institution.

As the spread of dictatorial controls increasingly limits the right of free speech and self-determination in various parts of the world, the role of unbiased investigation and democratic discussion becomes increasingly vital. Not only is it important to know that there are social ills; it is necessary to offer remedies—and not for a Utopian future but for the immediate present. Such recommendations for action, too, must be given the widest possible consideration.

Unlike medical research, which has endeavored to find not only the causes of disease but also the cures, most study in the field of social science has been limited to finding and analyzing facts. Rarely has a research organization formulated, on the basis of accumulated data, a course of action that it believes would mitigate an unhealthy economic or social condition.

In endeavoring both to find the facts and

to recommend possible cures, the Twentieth Century Fund asks first, "What is wrong?" and makes a careful report on the facts. Next it demands, "What can and should be done?" and proceeds to make recommendations for action that will be in the best public interest. Instead of stating categorically that its findings shall be accepted without question, however, the Fund presents both facts and program to the public for democratic consideration and action.

In recent years the Twentieth Century Fund has made thorough investigations of such problems as taxation, old age security, government credit, the security markets, government labor relations, internal debts in the United States, economic sanctions, the role of large corporations in American life, and medical economics. At present it is investigating the questions of costs and wastes in distribution. Last year the New York Stock Exchange invited the Twentieth Century Fund to make a study of short selling. With access to private records of the Stock Exchange, the Twentieth Century Fund will be free to make its own report and recommendations, without any limitations. In all of its studies, the Fund follows the same general procedures.

This continues the series of statements which we have been publishing on the programs of organizations active in educational work. Mr Rich is public affairs associate of the Twentieth Century Fund.

THE Board of Trustees of the Fund is composed of leaders in the world of affairs with a wide diversity of views, and includes A. A. Berle, Bruce Bliven, Henry S. Dennison, John H. Fahey, Robert S. Lynd, Charles P. Taft, and William Allen White. In formal meeting this Board discusses those current economic and social

questions which it believes merit study by the Twentieth Century Fund. After careful consideration subjects are selected. The Board of Trustees then appoints for each study a committee of men and women possessing a broad experience with differing groups and interests. Each special committee selects a qualified research staff to collect all the most pertinent available data and to prepare a report giving the essential facts. This research staff works as part of the Twentieth Century Fund organization under the general supervision of its committee, but it is given free scope, subject only to the qualifications of thoroughness and accuracy.

Upon completion of its work the research staff presents its report to its special committee. At this point most research organizations feel that their task is done. But not the Twentieth Century Fund. With the wealth of knowledge and experience which is theirs, the members of the special committee meet to consider the report in detail. After careful analysis and discussion of the findings, the committee prepares recommendations for action which it believes will be in the public interest. Each proposal is designed as a practicable next step forward in public policy. Even though a great variety of points of view are represented in each committee, all of the committee reports have been unanimous except for minor footnote reservations. This seems to be a practical demonstration of the utility of democratic methods in solving the current problems of our society without rancor and in the light of well tested facts. It deserves the commendation of all to whom our democratic ideals and traditions are sacred.

WHEN both the research report and recommendations of the special committee have been finally revised and approved, the Twentieth Century Fund gives them the widest possible dissemination. The press is kept fully informed of developments. Findings of particular interest and recommendations of exceptional merit are

sent to newspapers throughout the country whose editors not only find them useful as news stories but also as a basis for editorials. Both the research report and committee recommendations are published together in book form, so that the reader may, upon the basis of the thorough research analysis presented, make his own judgment upon the recommendations put forward. In some studies more than one volume is required. The taxation investigation, for example, was presented in two volumes. The first, *Facing the Tax Problem*, contains the general research report and recommendations; the second, *Studies in Current Tax Problems*, presents a series of special findings.

Frequently persons are interested in obtaining a complete set of recommendations separately. These are therefore reprinted for press use, for consideration by various organizations, for discussion in college and secondary school classes, and for a variety of other similar purposes. Even then, though, the task of dissemination has only begun. On particular topics, brief digest leaflets concisely and simply written present the facts on various phases of the study plus the appropriate committee recommendations. The reader may thus decide for himself the validity of the recommendations. For the individual seeking more detailed information, but unable to spend time reading the complete report and recommendations, brief popular fifty-page pamphlets have been prepared. They present clearly, but in non-technical terms, the important findings of a given study, and they incorporate in their text the recommendations of the Fund's special committee.

To many men and women "seeing is believing." For those who appreciate visual interpretations, a series of poster-charts has been developed presenting statistical or pictorial information drawn from the various studies. These have been used in the classroom, as parts of exhibits, and for meetings.

To acquaint more and more people with the facts plus an intelligent program, the Twentieth Century Fund has already pre-

sented and plans to continue in the future a series of radio broadcasts. In addition it provides an exhibit service for libraries, club meetings, schools, and other groups and is able to make available certain of its supplementary publications without charge in small quantities.

THE Twentieth Century Fund offers its services in the public interest. It seeks and desires discussion of its findings and recommendations. It endeavors to acquaint an ever widening circle of people throughout the nation with scientific and objective fact-finding studies, together with scientific, objective, and realistic recommendations for action in the public interest. It reaffirms

its belief that only by democratic discussion and action can the machinery of democracy be made to work most effectively.

To make available more information on tax questions, as well as on such topics as old-age security, the national debt and government credit, big business and related problems, the Twentieth Century Fund has made available without charge, or at purely nominal charge to cover printing and mailing, a variety of booklets and other materials that may be useful to you. For further information write the editor of *Social Education*, or communicate directly with the Public Affairs Assistant, Twentieth Century Fund, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.

If we should accept the criterion of the number of employment opportunities that require college training and limit our enrollments in colleges to this number, we should thereby have to reduce our college enrollments to about one-half or possibly one-third their present size. If this should be done, it would require the lifting of training standards so high that less than half of those now going to college could be admitted. Furthermore, this policy would mean that about the only objective or purpose of a college education would be professional or pre-professional preparation. It is true that this has been the major purpose of American colleges for many years, but their leaders have never liked to admit it. The fact is that both secondary and higher education in America have been essentially materialistic through most of our history. People have sought them for the "status" which they would give. There has always been a definite monetary value to more education because the more "education" one had the more his income would be. Now that this relationship is no longer so direct, the only answer to our problems that many can suggest is that too many youth are going to high school and college. Their answer is, "Let us save secondary and higher education for a limited minority and preserve the 'privilege' character of it." Undoubtedly this is a definite answer, but it certainly is not a democratic answer. The democratic alternative is to admit all youth into high school and college who have ability and character and to recognize that such training may have values for our democracy wholly apart from its contribution to the enhancement of one's earning power and economic status (Homer P. Rainey, Director American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, "Are Too Many Youth Going to High School and College?" *Vital Speeches of the Day*, May 15, 1939, pp. 461-62).

Have You Read?

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE

MOST of us will agree that this troublous depression which began in 1929 is not an "ordinary slump." It has been said that that fateful year marked the end of a period of rapid expansion. The development of our vast natural resources coupled with the prolific growth of population made America affluent—but now our natural resources are fairly well developed, and there is a marked downward trend in the nation's birth rate.

In the November *Atlantic* Sumner H. Slichter, professor of Business Economics at Harvard, discusses the prospects for our economic world as "Business Looks Ahead." Professor Slichter believes that there can be little hope for the disappearance of the chronic unemployment which has been with us these ten years "until we put to work each year the amount that the country attempts to save." Since, however, this is a period of slow economic expansion, the problem of putting the savings of the country promptly to work necessitates comprehensive changes in social policy. "One proposal is that the government drastically reduce current savings by heavier taxes on personal incomes; a second is that the government stimulate private investment by undertaking to insure loans by private banks to small enterprises; a third is that the government put idle savings to work by a great expansion of public investment." All are critically examined.

THREE interesting slants on related problems of adjustment within our economic order are presented in the Autumn issue of

the *Virginia Quarterly Review*. Eliot January, business editor of the *New York Times*, considers a practical approach to one problem in "Monopolies: Order or Chaos." He concludes that we must learn to master the machinery of large scale industry, "lest its unregulated and uncoordinated working bring it down in ruins on our heads." And "the New Deal offers us our only practical way of beginning this job."

Quite contrary is the point of view expressed by the chairman of the National Steel Corporation in his discussion of "Industry and American Democracy." An avowed opponent of the Roosevelt Administration, Ernest Tener Weir, maintains that the crucial question of the day is "whether we shall witness a return to American principles that support and stimulate industry or see a continuation of the collectivist ideology that smothers it." Of course there are a great number of Americans who would beg to differ with Mr Weir, but his opinions may be taken as fairly representative of the views held by many industrialists in the United States.

The distinguished historian, Charles A. Beard contributes a stimulating essay on "The Idea of Let Us Alone." Laissez faire "was not an original American idea" culled from day to day experience, but rather "a later importation from abroad which never did correspond with comprehensive exactness to the configurations of American economic, social, and political life." And "the intensive cultivation and propaganda of the idea was in large part the work of professors" of political economy.

PROPAGANDA IN AMERICA

NOW that Europe is at war again, we in America can expect a virtual flood of propaganda—for war, for appeasement, for partial participation, and for non-intervention in the European conflict. It will indeed be a problem to separate the wheat from the chaff, but that is the task before us if we are to act intelligently. According to Clyde R. Miller and Louis Minsky in *Survey Graphic* for November we should find out "What propagandists seek to influence us, and to what end? How do they operate? What are their methods and their motives?"

The seven propaganda devices which the Institute for Propaganda Analysis lists are further explained in "Propaganda—Good and Bad—for Democracy." We are cautioned against "name calling," "glittering generalities," "the device of transfer," "the device of the testimonial," "the device of plain folk," "card stacking," and "the bandwagon device." A suggested antidote for "name calling," the commonest of the propaganda tricks, is to ask what the bad name means, who applies the term, and what his motives or interests are. It sounds like a reasonable enough procedure.

IN the *New Republic* for November 1 Harold Lavine elaborates on how "The Propagandists Open Fire." In spite of the fact that Lord MacMillan, head of England's Ministry of Information, publicly stated that it was against his policy to carry on propaganda in the United States, the cables have been flooded with stories giving England's view of the war. The Ministry of Information censors any other interpretation. Perhaps Lord MacMillan merely meant that he would refrain from exporting official press agents.

But neither have the Germans been napping. Mr Lavine writes that the German Library of Information has begun to send out carloads of pamphlets and leaflets pleading the Nazi cause. A flimsily disguised propaganda organization called Transocean News Service now has offices in New York

and Washington and a new magazine, *Today's Challenge*, is admittedly receiving appreciable financial support from George Sylvester Viereck who is "by far the most prominent German propagandist here."

The French Bureau des Informations does not issue special bulletins, but French officials whisper the story—"just between you and me—and it gets out anyway."

IN the November issue of *Common Sense* Porter Sargent warns against "British Propaganda in the United States." Is it mere chance that the Governor-General of Canada, Lord Tweedsmuir, was official chronicler of the last war and Director of Information under the Prime Minister during 1917-18? It has also been rumored that the only instruction which Lord Lothian, the new British Ambassador, received from his government was to "do anything the Americans like." American public opinion has probably already been influenced by the views of "English newspaper correspondents planted in Washington or metropolitan centers, like Sir Wellmott Lewis of the *London Times*, or casual visitors like Sir Arthur Willert, former Chief Press officer of the British Foreign Office. . . ." And in this connection need we mention the ingratiating Anthony Eden or the recent royal visit?

THE WAR SPIRIT

FOR the November *Survey Graphic* Vera Micheles Dean, research director of the Foreign Policy Association, writes of the spirit of government leaders, journalists, and plain citizens, in neutral Scandinavia and warring England, France, and Germany "As Europe Went to War." During this past summer all peoples seemed united in the hope of averting war because "they were convinced in their inmost hearts and minds, that war could not solve their manifold problems." Yet, they shouldered the guns and manned the tanks when called to colors this fall.

Why did the Germans vow "We must

make an end to Poland, we can't stand their treatment of us any longer"? Why did the British and French proclaim, "We can't live in the midst of recurring crises, we've had enough of Hitler's threats, let's make an end of it"? Why did the democracies acquiesce to the fate of Austria, Spain, and Czechoslovakia, but declare war when Germany invaded Poland? Dr Dean believes that enough people suddenly felt crushed "by the cumulative weight of alternate threats and concessions, makeshift deals and shady bargains," that disrupted their daily lives and, having lost their patience, they felt it better "to face the known dangers of today than continue to speculate about the dangers of tomorrow."

CANADA UNDER ARMS

ALTHOUGH loyal Australia and New Zealand joined Great Britain the very first day in declaring war on Germany, Canada did not proclaim belligerency until a week later. According to William Stokes in the November *Forum* the procrastination of the Canadian Government was determined much more by internal political factors than by the needs of Great Britain.

"Canada's War Dilemma" is comprehensible indeed when we realize that the last war cost that Dominion about \$2,500,000,000 in direct expenditures. "Canada staggers under a national debt that is over twice as large per capita as that of the U. S. despite the lower per capita national wealth. The unity of the country is menaced by secessionist sentiment in four or five different regions. Intervention in the present war along the lines of 1914 would conceivably result in national bankruptcy. . . ." However, if Britain should appear to be hard pressed or if the United States should show signs of abandoning her neutral stand, it is very likely that Canada would "be swept into the war on an unlimited basis."

In the *Nation* for October 28, J. S. Kennedy discusses the sad plight of civil liberties in wartime Canada. "Let Canada Be a Warn-

ing" he writes, for after six weeks of war, "we think twice before we speak." The Defence of Canada Regulations, promulgated by the Cabinet independent of Parliament, provide for \$5,000 fines and imprisonment up to five years for such vague offenses as "causing disaffection to His Majesty" and "prejudicing recruiting." Another clause grants to the Minister of Justice the power to arrest without warrant, and imprison for an indefinite length of time, any person whom he suspects may act "in any manner prejudicial to the public safety or the safety of the state."

A DEMOCRATIC PEACE

SOME Reflections on the Peace to Be" are submitted by Stephen Duggan to the November *News Bulletin of the Institute of International Education*. Believing that the next peace will be negotiated rather than dictated, and hoping that the welfare of humanity as a whole will be the primary consideration of the peacemakers, Dr Duggan maintains that some form of collective control must be devised. A general plan of colonial supervision ought to be developed; armaments should be drastically curtailed; and finally, "though no peace ought to attempt to decide for any nation under what form of government it should live," a just peace must necessarily make some provision "whereby truthful information can reach all peoples."

BUT would an Allied victory necessarily insure the integrity of truth and democracy? In the Autumn issue of the *American Scholar* Professor Harold J. Laski answers in the negative, contending that there would be little chance for the survival of the principle of democratic government in the event of "an internal effort to transform the basis of society from the private to the public ownership of the means of production." Neville Chamberlain's record as regards Spain and Czechoslovakia is cited in support of the statement that there is little indication that the Prime Minister's "enthusiasm

for the form of state is so much greater than his zeal for the content enshrined therein that he will insist on respecting the will of the majority in all cases." It is the problem of adjusting "the framework of existing economic relationships to the consequences of the democratic principle" which constitutes "The Challenge of Our Times."

THE NEUTRAL POWERS

HEARING so much about the warring nations these past weeks has prompted a good number of us to inquire about happenings "Among the Neutrals." In the November number of the *Living Age* the positions of Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Spain are surveyed. Holland's neutrality differs noticeably from that of Switzerland. Swiss neutrality is internationally guaranteed which practically implies that if Switzerland should be invaded in time of general war she would join the enemies of the country which violated her neutrality. Holland, on the other hand, has declined such a guarantee. Even if her territory should be violated, she apparently prefers the freedom to act as she sees fit in the particular case. The neutrality of Holland also differs from that of Belgium. Until 1936 Belgium was a signatory of the Treaty of Locarno, but at that time Britain and France released her from those treaty obligations. They continued, however, to guarantee her integrity. Oddly enough there are no military agreements between these neutral neighbors. Holland and Belgium have totally different systems of defence which would probably make military cooperation extremely difficult.

While all three of these small nations see neutrality as their ultimate hope for survival, neutral Spain seeks economic advantages from the war. State power is concentrated in the hands of the Falangists who openly sympathize with the Third Reich but General Franco is undoubtedly aware of the possibility of renewed civil war in the event of Spanish participation on either side.

THE FAR EASTERN FRONT

OUR preoccupation with events in western Europe has made "That Other War—In China" seem more remote than ever. However, in the November *Events* G. Nye Steiger informs us that the Sino-Japanese War has actually quickened its pace with "Japan's land forces embarked upon new major operations" and Japanese bombing squadrons seeking "fresh targets for their destruction practice." The war in Europe may have had some effect on the Far Eastern struggle, but to all intents and purposes Japan will continue to "concentrate her efforts upon the settlement of the China affair." For the first time all Japanese land forces in China have been placed under a unified command and Japanese sources in Shanghai announced the beginning of another major offensive, westward from Nanchang and southward from the Wu-Han cities, upon Changsha, the capital of the Hunan province.

JAPAN has appropriated or destroyed practically all the modern industry of China. By so doing, she had hoped to make the occupied areas utterly dependent on Japanese manufactured goods and in turn break Chinese resistance. Japan assumes that the overburdened agricultural economy of China can not hold out much longer against the vast industrial machine which is ready to revive trade. But China is not giving up yet and in the Autumn issue of *Pacific Affairs* Nym Wales holds "China's New Line of Industrial Defense" largely responsible. The Chinese Industrial Cooperatives project is that hopeful "new line." A thousand refugees from Hankow, Honan, Shantung, and Hopei were transported to the first industrial cooperatives in Shensi. "Three days after their arrival, on August 23, a group of blacksmiths set up a cooperative foundry. The second unit was made up of 30 stocking knitters from Honan, who carried their knitting machines from Sian. Next came a soap-and-candle cooperative of 12 members, and fourth a printing coopera-

tive. . . . The cooperatives are self-managing and democratic." The members elect the chairman and committee of directors. Wages are decided by membership vote and depend of course on the state of finances. This "participation in cooperative management has been the first taste of democracy any of these poor people have ever dreamed of. . . ."

INDEPENDENCE FOR THE PHILIPPINES

THE general trend of future American relations in the Orient is closely related to "The Outlook for Philippine Independence." If the United States should withdraw from the Philippines there is strong belief that American prestige throughout the Far East would be lowered considerably, and far more damaging than loss of prestige in such an event would be the almost inevitable extension of Japanese influence and control. In the Foreign Policy Report for September 15, Fredrick T. Merrill suggests that the present war in the Far East has led to widespread doubt as to chances for the survival of an independent Philippine democracy after 1946. Many Filipinos are said to favor a semi-independent status under American protection in preference to the fate of a second Manchukuo dominated by Japanese militarists. And "while the American people seem relatively unconcerned with what Japan does in China, it is extremely doubtful whether they would turn a deaf ear to Philippine appeals for assistance and allow Japanese aggression in an area so influenced by American ideas and institutions. . . ."

Grayson Kirk's comprehensive study of "Philippine-American Relations: Recent Trends," in the Autumn number of *Political Science Quarterly* further clarifies the issues involved in independence for the Philippine Islands.

The presence of strategic minerals in the Philippines is another factor to consider in relation to the question of independence. Although the mining industry of the Islands is chiefly devoted to gold production there also appear to be substantial deposits of iron,

chromite, manganese, copper, asbestos, lead, zinc, and platinum. The United States is particularly interested in chromium and manganese, both of which are practically indispensable to the steel industry. Catherine Porter discusses "Philippine Independence in a Mineral-Conscious World" in the November 8 *Far Eastern Survey*.

BRITISH PARTY POLITICS

THE present British National Government is a coalition of the Conservative, National Labor, and Liberal National parties, under the leadership of Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain. Britain was armed for the present war by this National Government and in all probability the country will continue under its direction until the armed conflict is over. If the Allies should prove victorious there is little doubt that the Chamberlain government will ask for "vindication of its policy at the polls," and when that time is on hand the National Government will send off its "heavy barrage of electoral propaganda." In this connection, Professor Ralph D. Casey, former member of the Committee on Pressure Groups and Propaganda of the Social Science Research Council, discusses "The National Publicity Bureau and British Party Propaganda" in the fall issue of *Public Opinion Quarterly*.

With substantial financial backing the National Publicity Bureau was the most potent single source of propaganda in the Tory campaign of 1935. "It created striking innovations in the use of propaganda media in a British election, retained some of the best brains in the commercial public relations field in London, and helped the National Government win its spectacular victory over the Labor and Liberal Parties. Under its aegis, there was carried through the first modern, large-scale propaganda campaign on a national basis in the history of British politics, yet it worked so unobtrusively and anonymously that few outside the ranks of professional politicians and organization men had any appreciation of its potency." And it remains, "discreetly in the background."

NOTES AND NEWS

NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WASHINGTON

The National Council for the Social Studies will meet in Washington, D. C., on December 28-30 in conjunction with the annual conventions of the American Political Science Association and the American Historical Association.

On Thursday noon, December 28, a luncheon conference will be held in the Chinese Room of the Hotel Mayflower at 12:30. The speaker will be Guy Stanton Ford, President of the University of Minnesota, whose topic will be "History Teachers in War Time." Reservations at \$1.40 each should be addressed to the National Council chairman of local arrangements, Miss Martha S. Poole, 3200-39th Street NW, Washington, or to the AHA chairman, Albert V. House, Jr, Wilson Teachers College, Washington.

On Friday morning, December 29, a round table session on government in the school program will be held at the Wardman Park Hotel at 10 A.M., under the sponsorship of the American Political Science Association and the National Council. The participants will include Charles A. Beard, Phillips Bradley, William C. Carr, Luther Gulick, Robert J. Havighurst, Erling M. Hunt, Leonard S. Kenworthy, Max Lerner, Charles Merrifield, Warner Moss, Charles Schleicher, Harrison Thomas, Ruth West, and Howard White.

On Saturday morning, December 30, a National Council meeting will consider "The Place of European History in the School Program," under the chairmanship of A. C. Krey. The speakers will be Edwin W. Pahlow of Ohio State University, Donnal V. Smith of the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, Irene Rice of the Western High School, Washington, and Erling M. Hunt of Columbia University. The meeting will be held in the Pan-American Room, Hotel Mayflower, at 10 A.M.

NEW ENGLAND

The New England History Teachers' Association will hold its fall meeting at Boston University on Saturday, December 9. Professor A. M. Schlesinger will preside over a conference on increasing the effectiveness of the Association. Tyler Kepner will preside at a discussion of "The Role of the History Teacher in the Present World Crisis," at which Professors Sidney B. Fay of Harvard and Edward Kirkland of Bowdoin will be the main speakers. In a third session, chaired by Miss Mildred Bassett of the Rhode Island State College of Education, Professor Abbott P. Usher will speak on "The Economic Effect of the First World War on the United States," after which the question, "What Kind of Economics Do Present Day Needs Demand?" will be considered. The luncheon speaker will be Dean R. G. Caldwell of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The officers of the Association are Arthur M. Schlesinger, Harvard University, president; Tyler Kepner, Brookline, vice-president; and Horace Kidger, Newton (Massachusetts) High School, secretary and treasurer. H. K.

NEW YORK CITY

The city Association of Chairman of Social Studies met on October 21. The general topic was trends in social studies teaching through the country.

Professor Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University was critical of some trends illustrated in the new "Approach to the Organization of the Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools" in New York State, a proposal in which he found content and method left unrelated, sociology overemphasized, and concepts arbitrarily presented rather than developed out of pupil experience and descriptive

subject matter. He commended the functional emphasis, but urged attention to the *way* in which knowledge is developed and established. He also commended a trend toward some form of "graphic" or laboratory method in social studies.

Michael Conovitz of the Central Commercial and Technical High School, Newark, New Jersey, described curriculum revision in Newark, stressing greater emphasis on democracy, integration, realism, and adaptation to different needs, and insistence on classroom trial prior to general adoption.

Dr Walter E. Myer of Civic Education Service also spoke. M. D. J.

LONG ISLAND

The Long Island Social Studies Teachers' Association held its first meeting of the year at Westbury on October 6, with an attendance of about 200. Edward Range, president of the organization, presided.

An address on the "Utilization of the Radio in the Teaching of Social Studies" was given by Dr Franklin Dunham, educational director of the National Broadcasting Company. Dr Dunham stressed the importance of fitting radio materials into the curriculum and told of radio broadcasts prepared with a special view to their use in connection with teaching of the social studies. Several sound motion pictures especially adapted for use in social studies teaching were shown.

Miss Hannah Hanway, second vice-president of the New York State Council for the Social Studies, was present at the meeting and spoke on the work of the Council.

On November 28 Erling M. Hunt of Teachers College, Columbia University, addressed a dinner meeting at Huntington on "Teaching Democracy through the Schools."

The officers for the year 1939-40 are: M. N. Brown, Oyster Bay High School, president; Robert Reid, Malverne High School, vice-president; Eleanor Craw, East Northport High School, second vice-president; Ella Falkenburg, Smithtown High School, secretary; Matthew Smith, Great Neck High School, treasurer; and Viola Stanfield, Amityville High School, publicity director. V. J. S.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES

The Middle States Association of History and Social Studies Teachers met at Atlantic

City on November 24-25, simultaneously with the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. On Friday the latter organization sponsored sessions on "The Ends and Means of General Education." On Saturday Dr Caroline E. Ware of American University explained "The New History Examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board." Dr E. D. Grizzell of the University of Pennsylvania described "The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," with special reference to the social studies. Russell E. Fraser of East Orange, New Jersey, and James E. Downes of Summit, New Jersey, spoke on the topic "The Social Studies Teacher Re-examines Patriotism." The luncheon speaker was Dr David S. Muzzey of Columbia University, who examined "The Responsibility of the History Teacher in Time of Crisis."

The officers are Robert I. Adriance, East Orange High School, president; John A. Krout, Columbia University and Richard J. Purcell, Catholic University, vice-presidents; Paul O. Carr, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, secretary; and Robert H. Reid, Malverne (New York) High School, treasurer.

KENTUCKY

The fall meeting of the Kentucky Council for the Social Studies was held at Morehead Teachers College, Morehead, Kentucky, on October 27-28.

On October 27 E. R. Martin of Louisville, chairman of the KCSS curriculum committee, presented "A Proposed Program for the Social Studies in the Public Schools of Kentucky." On October 28 Margaret Mowry of Fort Thomas presided over a session in which Raymond Snodgrass of Paducah discussed select items in European and American historical bibliography, in which J. M. Ridgeway of Lexington described an experiment in correlating junior high school social studies and English, and in which Howard W. Robey of Louisville spoke on "Enrichment of Instruction." Following a luncheon Dr K. P. Vinsel of the University of Louisville spoke on "America and the War," and E. B. Hartford described "Available Materials from the TVA."

One of the outstanding achievements of the notably successful meeting was the decision to formulate a tentative recommendation for textbook adoptions in the state and to submit these to the State Textbook Commission.

New officers elected were: Raymond Snodgrass, Paducah, president; Leo Ashby, Rich Pond, vice-president; Lucile Chapman, Ashland, secretary-treasurer. Howard W. Robey, Louisville, was selected as editor for a third term.
H. W. R.

ILLINOIS

In November the Illinois Council for the Social Studies began publication of *The Councilor*, edited by Robert S. Elwood of Illinois State Normal University. It will appear three times a year. The 24-page first issue includes "The Work of a State Council for the Social Studies" by Kenneth B. Thurston of Indiana University; "The Work of a Local Council" by C. A. Harper of Illinois State Normal University; and "General Education for Citizenship and the Social Studies Curriculum" by Roscoe Pulliam, president of Southern Illinois State Normal University.

The fall meeting of the Social Studies section of the High School Conference was held at the University of Illinois on November 3. Among the numerous speakers was Howard E. Wilson, secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies.

INDIANA

The Social Studies Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association met at Indianapolis on October 26. The speakers were Dr Harry Elmer Barnes, Dr V. L. Albjerg of Purdue University, and Dr Hazel Pfennig. A breakfast session of college teachers of history and social science was also held.

DETROIT

The seventh volume of *The Social Studies Bulletin*, issued five times a year by the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, appears in larger format. Ruth West contributes a brief statement on "American History in the Curriculum" to the October number, and Howard R. Anderson an incisive analysis of "The Role of the Social Studies in a Democracy."

Five meetings of the club are scheduled for the current year.

The officers of the club are Robert Reeves, president; Nina F. Varson, vice-president; Stanley E. Dimond, secretary-treasurer; and Alice M. Davis, recording secretary.

CHICAGO

The Chicago Council for the Social Studies has adopted as the theme for its eight monthly meetings during the current year "Building the Social Studies upon the Needs of Youth in a Democratic Society." On October 9 a panel discussed the vocational, recreational, and industrial problems of youth today, with attention to underprivileged area and the use of community resources. On November 20 a second panel discussed basic teaching materials at various levels. On December 18 the topic of a third panel will be "Providing Responsibilities for Urban Youth." Meetings are held in the Central YMCA cafeteria, 19 S. LaSalle Street. For details address Miss Eunice Peter, Lake View High School.

WISCONSIN

Nearly five hundred social studies teachers attended the luncheon and program of the Wisconsin History Teachers, held at Milwaukee on November 3 in connection with the state convention of the Wisconsin Education Association.

The principal speakers were Professor Roy A. Price of Syracuse University, chairman of the Public Relations Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies, on "The Selection of Activities in Teaching History and the Other Social Studies," and Dr J. Martin Klotsche of the Milwaukee State Teachers College, on "Teaching Units of International Understanding in History Courses." Dr Price also addressed the Civics Section on "Practical Problems in Education for Democratic Citizenship."

An exhibit of the publications of the National Council was prepared under the direction of Dr E. H. Evans, Whitewater State Teachers College, Wisconsin, chairman of the Public Relations Committee.

Jesse Grueneisen of the Waukesha High School was chosen as chairman of the Wisconsin History Teachers for the next year, and B. W. Wells of Madison East Side High School was re-elected as secretary-treasurer. The retiring chairman, Alfred Reschke of North Division High, Milwaukee, was selected as delegate to the Kansas City meeting of the National Council.

Plans were discussed for the entertainment of the National Council next summer at the

time the NEA meets in Milwaukee. Local arrangements will be cared for largely by the Milwaukee County History Teachers, of which Miss Ethel M. De Marsh, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, is president. The meeting expressed unofficial support of a proposal to form a Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies, following the New York plan explained by Professor Price at the luncheon discussion.

E. H. E.

ARKANSAS

Dr Fremont P. Wirth of the George Peabody College for Teachers spoke at the meeting of the Arkansas Council for the Social Studies held in connection with the AEA meeting on November 3, on "Improvement of Social Studies Instruction." The following officers were elected: Jerry Patterson, Pine Bluff, president; Louise Porter, North Little Rock, vice-president; and Henry Kronenberg, Fayetteville, secretary.

SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

The fall conference of the Southern California Social Science Association was held at the University of Southern California on November 4. "Problems of Civic Betterment" was the topic of a panel discussion in the morning. The after-luncheon topic was "The Current European Scene."

The officers of the Association are now W. C. Quandt, Beverly Hills High School, president; Helen Miller Bailey, Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, vice-president; Lewis W. Clark, Beverly Hills High School, secretary; and Margaret Gary, University High School, Los Angeles, treasurer.

The Southern California *Social Studies Review*, published by the Association, is now edited by Robert B. Johnston. The 40-page October issue includes "Recreation and Civic Betterment" by George Hjette; "Measuring Civic Attitudes" by Elizabeth Woods, and "Teachers and Local Government Learn to Cooperate" by George A. Homrighausen.

FLORIDA CURRICULUM BULLETINS

Continuing the preparation of materials for Florida teachers who are engaged in a comprehensive state-wide program for the improvement of instruction in Florida schools, the State Department of Education has recently

published five curriculum bulletins. Their main objective is to encourage individual teachers and faculties to study and improve their instructional procedures and curriculum designs. With this in mind Bulletin Number 2, *Ways to a Better Instructional Program in Florida Schools* (75 cents, postpaid), becomes the keystone of the program and contains material for study groups. This bulletin is divided into two parts: "Basic Considerations and Suggested Procedure" and "Suggestive Guides to Teachers for Developing Major Aspects of the School Program." Bulletin Number 6 (25 cents) sets forth suggestions for organizing and conducting discussion groups. Bulletin Number 3 (25 cents) asks the elementary school teachers of the state to cooperate in making suggestions for the improvement of the elementary course of study, while Bulletin Number 4 (25 cents) makes suggestions for the school health program, and Bulletin Number 5 (50 cents) for physical education.

These materials may be secured from the Florida Curriculum Laboratory, P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, University of Florida, Gainesville.

H. E. N.

"PROMISE OF AMERICAN LIFE"

The twenty-fifth anniversary supplement of the *New Republic* for November 8 contains a wealth of stimulating material on "The Promise of American Life." William H. Kilpatrick discusses "The Promise of Education," Henry A. Wallace, "The Future of the Farm," Robert Morss Lovett, "The Future of the Middle West," and Charles A. Beard inspires hope for a splendid civilization while "Looking Backward" at these last twenty-five years. About a dozen other facets of American life are examined by as many outstanding contemporary thinkers, among whom are Stuart Chase, Lewis Mumford, Thomas Mann, Archibald MacLeish, and John Chamberlain.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

The October issue of *Education* is devoted to Progressive Education. Among the contents are "Progressive Education Is Too Soft," by William C. Bagley; "The Superiority of Progressive Education," by W. H. Kilpatrick; "Has the Progressive a Monopoly on Democratic Education?", by Frederick S. Breed; and "Progressive Eight-Year Experiment with High

School Curriculums," by Catherine E. Nutterville.

The November issue of the *High School Journal* is similarly concerned with progressive practices in secondary schools, especially in the Eight-Year Study of the PEA. The fourteen articles include "Significant Change Faces Secondary Education," by Wilford M. Aiken; "American Education Becomes Youth Conscious," by Frederick L. Redefor; "A Core Curriculum Based on Everyday Problems," by Anne E. McGuire; and "We Serve Underprivileged Youth," by George Hook.

GIFTED CHILDREN

The *Journal of Educational Sociology* devotes its October issue to the education of gifted children in secondary schools. In concluding an account of "Educating the Elite in Europe," Walter M. Kotschnig declares: "Democracy at the present time is threatened not so much by the onslaught of the new totalitarian gospels but by its own mediocrity. It will survive only if there is a new recognition of the importance of excellence in many fields. This is the great chance of the schools. If they fail, the education of the elites will be taken over by corporals and party bosses."

Lewis M. Terman in a very stimulating article describes the gifted group in these words: ". . . as a group they are physically better equipped than the generality, that they are not injured by any reasonable amount of intellectual stimulation, that they tend to versatility rather than to undue specialization of ability, that they are above the average in character traits and social effectiveness, and (something highly important) that in the vast majority of cases their intellectual superiority is permanent. Furthermore, we know that intellectually gifted are to be found in every racial group and social class though in certain stocks more numerous than in others, that often they are not recognized by the teacher, that they are usually located in a school grade two or three years below their achievement level, that they can easily master the ordinary elementary curriculum in two or three hours a day for five or six years, that so far as intellectual abilities are concerned they can be made ripe for college work by the age of fifteen, and that some of them have acquired more knowledge before entering college than many seniors

have at the time of graduation." He presently adds: ". . . I wish to point out that gifted students in general are to a surprising extent self-educated. Learned and Wood find many college seniors untutored in English beyond the high school who know more English than other college seniors who have majored in the subject. They even find *high-school* seniors who know more science than some *college* seniors who have majored in science preparatory to teaching it in high school. Such facts as these show what the gifted high-school student is sometimes up against."

Leta S. Hollingworth, in arguing for a special program for highly intelligent pupils, characterizes the college-preparatory course as "sufficiently abstract, complex, and difficult to operate as an intellectual stimulus for quite highly intelligent adolescents." She notes that "Pupils at and above 130 I.Q. (S-B) need, on the average, about one half of their time in the elementary school for mastering the standard curriculum set up for 'all the children.' 'Mastering' here means not 'passing' with a mark of 65 per cent, but genuine *mastery* with marks of 90 per cent and above." Pupils above 150 I.Q., in Dr Hollingworth's view, need further enrichment, and might well learn a skilled trade in addition to mastering the usual school content.

Programs for gifted children in Los Angeles and New York City are also described.

PROPAGANDA AND WAR

Clyde R. Miller writes on "Propaganda and the European War" in the October number of *Clearing House*. Noting the current bombardment of America with conflicting propagandas, he analyzes the appeals in terms of the seven common propaganda devices to which he has previously called attention. The article should be of practical value to all teachers who treat current events.

The Institute for Propaganda Analysis also has a recent bulletin on War Propaganda.

CONSUMER EDUCATION

In October this department called attention to a News Letter on *Consumer Education* issued nine times a year at the Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. Though originally free to educators, as the item said, there is now a charge of 25

cents a year for the letters, in conformity to postal regulations.

Two articles in the October *Clearing House* are concerned with consumer education. Harry A. Becker describes "Methods and Pitfalls in Consumer Education." Discussion, library work, actual buying, analysis of advertisements and labels, study of consumer-protection agencies, of consumer-education literature, and trade organizations, and visits to factories are suggested. A consumer's diary and individual studies are recommended.

Robert E. Finch describes courses in consumer education at the Shore High School, Euclid, Ohio.

Consumer Quiz, published by the Consumers Union, 17 Union Square West, New York, includes at least two monthly projects for consumer education classes, as well as discussion questions based on Consumer Union Reports. A sample will be sent free on request.

MODERN PROBLEMS

Employment. "Jobs After Forty," by Beulah Amidon, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 35, published by Silver Burdett at 10 cents a copy, discusses this aspect of the employment problem in 31 pages.

Debts. "Debts—Good or Bad?", by Maxwell S. Stewart, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 36, also 10 cents, is concerned with the relation of debts to the depression, to credit institutions, to agriculture, and to home mortgages. The pamphlet is based on a Twentieth Century Fund Study.

Tariffs. "State Trade Walls," by F. Eugene Melder, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 37, also 10 cents, deals with state and local barriers to trade and the methods by which they are raised.

Labor. "Fair Labor Standards—What Are They," by Jean A. Flexner and Esther Cole Franklin, is a publication of the American Association of University Women, 1634 I Street, Washington, in its Social Studies Series. In 205 mimeographed pages, bound in two parts, it surveys hours of work, workers' incomes, unemployment, industrial relations, problems of young workers, industrial health and safety, and the administration of state labor laws. A bibliography is appended.

Conservation. The Soil Conservation Service of the United States Department of Agriculture

has several publications suitable for high school use. *To Hold This Soil*, by Russell Lord (Miscellaneous Publication No. 321, August, 1938, 122 pages, illustrated, 45 cents), is on a general survey of the problem. *Land Facts*, by Glenn K. Rule (Miscellaneous Publication No. 334, 1939, 22 pages with map, 40 cents); *Soil Defense of Range and Farm Lands in the Southwest*, by E. M. Rowalt (Miscellaneous Publication No. 338, 1939, 51 pages, illustrated, 10 cents); *Conserving Corn Belt Soil*, by Glenn K. Rule (Farmers' Bulletin No. 1795, 1937, 58 pages, illustrated, 15 cents); and *Prevention and Control of Gullies* (Farmers' Bulletin No. 1813, 1939, 59 pages, illustrated, 10 cents) are somewhat more specialized in their interests. *Soil Conservation and Related Subjects* (13 pages, mimeographed), provides a list of publications and charts. This last is available to educators without charge on application to the Soil Conservation Service. The other titles may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents.

THE STORY BEHIND THE HEADLINES

This year more than ever the story that lies back of the screaming headlines that meet our eyes in every newspaper is important. Every day listeners to radio hear more and worse stories of happenings in the world. It is hard to keep one's mental equilibrium.

"The Story Behind the Headlines," which started this season at 10:30 EST on Friday evening, the twenty-seventh of October, and continues on succeeding Fridays at the same hour over the National Broadcasting Company's red network, will try to explain something of what lies behind these bewildering and horrifying events of today. Today is not an explosion of the moment; it has its roots far in the past, and some knowledge of those roots may help us better to understand the plant that is growing from them.

The American Historical Association and the National Broadcasting Company are once more cooperating in presenting these talks on the backgrounds of today, which they call "The Story Behind the Headlines."

For the benefit of those listeners, particularly in the East, who feel that the hour is late, we would recall the very important news broadcasts that come at eleven o'clock. The Story Behind the Headlines may help you to hear them with more understanding.

For further information and for copies of the talks with bibliographies on the subjects treated, write to Mrs. Evelyn Plummer Read, American Historical Association, 226 South 16th Street, Philadelphia.

NATIONAL COUNCIL COMMITTEES

An increasing number of the activities of the National Council for the Social Studies are being conducted through committees. Suggestions will be welcomed. The present committees are:

Nominations: Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota, chairman; Roy A. Price, Syracuse University; and Howard C. Cummings, High School, Clayton, Missouri.

Research: Ernest Horn, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, chairman; Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University; Mary Elizabeth Knight, Public Schools, Seattle; A. K. King, University of North Carolina; Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota; and Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University.

Radio: Tracy F. Tyler, University of Minnesota, chairman; Howard C. Cummings, High School, Clayton, Missouri; E. F. Hartford, DuPont Manual Training High School, Louisville, Kentucky; R. O. Hughes, Board of Education, Pittsburgh; G. H. V. Melone, John Burroughs School, St Louis County, Missouri; George Miller, Public Schools, Detroit; Ethel M. Ray, Public Schools, Terre Haute, Indiana; Mabel Snedaker, State University of Iowa, Iowa City; Leslie Speir; Laura Ullrick, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois; Guy F. Varner, Public Schools, Cleveland; and Libbie Yrava.

Publications: Burr Phillips, University of Wisconsin, chairman; James A. Michener, Harvard University; and Fremont P. Wirth, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville.

Cooperation with the American Political Science Association: Leonard S. Kenworthy, Friends Central School, Overbrook, Pennsylvania, chairman; Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Harrison C. Thomas, Board of Education, New York City.

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES

ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Barnes, Charles C. "Detroit's 12-Year Widening Area Plan for Social Studies," *Clearing House*, XIV: 94-97,

October, 1939. Principles underlying a program of ever widening attention to "centers of interest" and large themes.

Hyslop, Beatrice. "International Relations in the Classroom," *High Points*, XXI: no. 9, 38-43, November, 1939. A survey of available aids and materials.

Mercey, Arch A. "Teaching Social Studies through Documentary Films," *Journal of Higher Education*, X: 303-08, June, 1939.

Spiegler, Charles G. "One American Way: A Program for School Democracy—the Public Forum," *High Points* XXI: no. 9, 48-55, November, 1939. The case for full discussion by all the pupils.

Sutherland, Miriam. "The Children Survey the Community," *Curriculum Journal*, X: 317-19, November, 1939. In the seventh and eighth grades of Glencoe, Illinois.

SOCIAL EDUCATION — BOUND VOLUMES

To accommodate our subscribers we have completed arrangements with Eggeling Bookbindery, 31 East Tenth Street, New York, Whereby you can have your nine issues of *Social Education* for 1939 (as for 1937 and 1938) bound together in one volume. They will be bound in a sturdy library binding of dark maroon cloth with title, volume, and year stamped in gold on the backbone.

The price will be \$1.50 per volume plus return postage. Send your nine copies of *Social Education* direct to Eggeling Bookbindery. Please be sure to give your name and address.

If you prefer a volume made up of new and unsoiled copies, such volumes may be secured for \$3.50 each plus postage by sending your order direct to the publisher, American Book Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York.

In either case, remittance, including return postage, should be sent with your order.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for February should be sent in by January 1.

Contributors to this issue include Eugene N. Anderson, Phillips Bradley, Paul O. Carr, E. H. Evans, Marion D. Jewell, Horace Kidger, Henry Kronenberg, H. E. Nutter, Eunice Peter, Evelyn Plummer Read, Howard W. Robey, Viola J. Stanfield, and Ruth West.

BOOK REVIEWS

American Problems of Today: A History of the United States since the World War. By Louis M. Hacker. New York: Crofts, 1938. Pp. xiii, 354. \$2.00.

Not least in importance among the developments of the last quarter century are the increasing speed, accuracy, and comprehensiveness with which the basic data of contemporary history are now recorded and analyzed. Government publications no longer call to mind merely congressional debates and presidential messages; one thinks rather of such broad-scale surveys as those which the National Resources Committee has undertaken, or of the statistical series in which numerous governmental agencies are continuously and objectively recording most of the measurable aspects of American life. As data become available, furthermore, it is being promptly checked and interpreted by permanent research institutions like Brookings, and by independent scholars whose monographs and articles on contemporary affairs meet critical standards as rigorous as those to which one would hold the historians of more remote and less controversial epochs.

In the fact of such a flood of material the urgent need for a volume like this of Mr Hacker's increases almost in direct proportion to the difficulty of writing it. The author has essayed a history of the United States since 1920, and his three hundred pages or so are a miracle of condensation. In achieving conciseness he has not fallen back upon vague generalization. On the contrary, his book is like one of those tightly rolled paper flowers that must be allowed to float for a few moments soaking up moisture before they will uncurl and be fully revealed. These pages are crowded with facts, sometimes in the form of brief summaries of basic documents; sometimes as compact statistical tables expertly woven into

the text. In straight narrative, furthermore, Mr Hacker is not averse to numbering his points in simple arabic figures, eschewing such literary circumlocutions as "to begin with," "furthermore," and "in the third place."

Mr Hacker's method is seen at its best in the four chapters of Part III. The first of these discusses, among other things, the causes of the depression, summarizing under ten headings the most frequently discussed theoretical explanations. These thirteen pages (179-91) are remarkable not merely for the clarity with which complicated economic reasoning is stated, but also for the conscientiousness with which the author indicates the sources of each argument, so that the reader may investigate it for himself. By discussing theory separately, Mr Hacker is able to approach the narrative of facts with a greater degree of objectivity than would have been possible had he allowed fact and philosophy to become too closely intertwined.

In setting down his factual descriptions, the author has contrived also to invite his readers to investigate the original data for themselves. Every fact presented is actively used. Each appears not as an inert illustration, but as raw material from which, in full view of the audience, the author fashions a conclusion. Implicit is the injunction to the reader: Go thou and do likewise.

If one should find fault, it would be with the first half of the book, where serious defects in organization may be blamed upon the author's habit of borrowing from his earlier writings. In defense Mr Hacker argues that "having said a thing once to the best of my ability, I have found it difficult—and perhaps unnecessary—to attempt to repeat the same thought in another form." This is begging the question—what is appropriate for a cornice

may not be suitable for a cornerstone. Mr Hacker's treatment of the 1920's, a brilliant conclusion to *The United States since 1865*, is not wholly satisfactory as an introduction to the volume here reviewed.

Specifically, the book launches first into a detailed study of the political campaign of 1920, while not until chapter iv (pp. 69 ff) is any attempt made to describe the sweep of economic and social forces in twentieth century America. Yet these are the very matters in which the author is obviously most interested, and this particular chapter, one of the best, should certainly have opened the book. Equally curious to this reviewer is the allocation of materials between chapters ii and v. Under the heading of "Leading Legislative Problems of the Nineteen Twenties," chapter ii discusses the tariff, merchant marine, railroads, public debt and taxation, veterans' legislation, and electric power. The "Four Outstanding Problems of the Twenties and Thirties," which make up chapter v, are prohibition, immigration, agricultural decline, and economic imperialism. The basis for this arbitrary separation is nowhere stated. Also arbitrary, but obviously more defensible, is the author's choice of 1920 for a beginning date. In the present posture of affairs, however, the years 1914-1917 are fully as relevant to contemporary problems as any three years in the 1920's.

After a few of Mr Hacker's conclusions one must place a question mark. To an economist, perhaps, prohibition may have seemed "very much like a red herring drawn across the trail of every vital public question with which Americans of the twenties should have been concerning themselves" (p. 105), but to an historian of the American mind it must continue to seem a phenomenon as interesting in its way as Abolitionism. Mr Hacker, on another page, is unfair to his own able analysis of New Deal politics when he permits this oversimplified summary: "Put baldly, the New Deal was a political program in behalf of agricultural landlords and big commercial farmers, organized trade unionists, and overseas investors and imperialist promoters" (p. 205). Few observers, to criticise a third passage, would quite agree that in the years immediately following the election of 1936, "Mr. Roosevelt's popularity—despite the reappearance of depression during 1937-1938—did not wane: if there was a

devil of the piece in the minds of the American public, it was the standpatter Democratic contingent in Congress and not the President or his body of advisers" (p. 295).

Mr Hacker, it must be admitted, is not at his best in discussing public opinion. His paragraph on American attitudes towards Europe (pp. 48-49) is an oversimplification, taking no account of contradictory currents of opinion. His summary of the views of so-called "isolationists" and "imperialists" (pp. 131-32) is too logical for any but hypothetical economic men. In the book as a whole there is little discussion of pressure groups and propaganda, despite their obvious influence. Although the discussion of bureaucracy is one of the most thought-provoking sections, there is an air of unreality about it through the author's failure to show how bureaucracy (in such areas as agriculture and relief) is maintained not merely by the bureaucrat's instinct for self-perpetuation, but also by the organized pressure of groups of beneficiaries.

In other words, Mr Hacker, like many others who treat primarily of the economic forces that underlie and obviously influence the course of history, pays insufficient attention to the mechanisms by which these great impersonal forces translate themselves into the ideas and actions of everyday men.

On matters with which the author definitely concerns himself, however, the omissions are comparatively unimportant. It is unfortunate that there is no mention of the National Resources Committee, and that only one of its great reports is listed in the bibliography. The proposals for reorganizing the federal administration were a major issue when Mr Hacker wrote but they receive no attention, in spite of the fact that two elaborate diagrams of governmental structure are thereby left hanging in mid-air as far as relationship to the text is concerned. In the otherwise excellently selected bibliography, one would like to see listed the monthly *Events* and the pamphlets of the Public Affairs Committee; and certainly no list of books on foreign policy can afford to omit the annual *United States in World Affairs* issued by the Council on Foreign Relations.

Factual errors are amazingly few. The Supreme Court in the *Schechter* case said, however, not "that a national emergency did not exist" (p. 222), but that it did "not create or enlarge constitutional power." The Banking

Act of 1933 forbade member banks of the Federal Reserve System, not Federal Reserve Banks alone, to lend to their officers (p. 240). The Securities Act of 1933 operated originally through the Federal Trade Commission (p. 243). Reciprocal trade agreements, technically at least, are not treaties (p. 259, n. 14).

All in all, no brief manual of contemporary American history presents so accurately and so suggestively such a wealth of significant material.

ARTHUR E. BESTOR, JR.

Teachers College
Columbia University

The Development of American Nationality.

Rev. Ed. by Carl Russell Fish. New York: American Book, 1938. Pp. xxxix, 584. \$3.25.

This edition of the late Professor Fish's textbook is, with the exception of the last chapter, almost exactly the same as the 1929 edition: only a very few and insignificant changes have been made in the text and bibliographical notes. Little comment is necessary on a college textbook first written twenty-five years ago and as popular as this one has apparently been.

The Development of American Nationality was written for college undergraduates and for that half-mythical "general reader who desires a comprehensive view of the subject within reasonable compass." It is essentially a political history, from 1783 to the present, presented to show "American history as a development," and based on the belief that "the American people have expressed themselves more fully in their political life than elsewhere." Given that faith, that approach, it is perhaps unfair to point out the fact that the brief discussions of economic, social, and intellectual "factors" (which the author promised to discuss in proportion as they "contributed" to political development) often seem little more than the payment of lip service. They are not generally integrated into the story of the "development of American nationality," nor are they present in sufficient portion. It is now generally accepted that those "factors" should be the basis of an American history, and the political history related to it. If the aim of the author was indeed "to describe those movements and forces which have left their permanent impress upon the national character and institutions,"

then the subordination of economic and social history in his book is unjustifiable.

The answer lies, probably, in the fact that Professor Fish first wrote the book in 1913, the very year of the publication of Beard's *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*. Unfortunately, it does not seem that the book has kept abreast of historical scholarship. It is distinctly dated: in style, in approach, and in interpretation.

The chapter on the post-war period (19 pages) has been rewritten and brought up to date, but not by Professor Fish. It is hardly an asset to the volume: it is exceedingly sketchy; the reader might easily question the sense of proportion which gives fifteen lines to the career of Charles A. Lindbergh and only thirty-five to the "great depression"; the chapter does not provide an adequate picture of the 'Twenties, nor is there any conception of the causes and consequences of the depression; finally, the author has not done justice to the New Deal or to its implications.

WILLIAM DIAMOND

Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

Seeing Our Country. Book Two. By Walter B. Pitkin and Harold F. Hughes. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xii, 384. \$1.60.

The plan of the authors is to acquaint the reader with the key industries and new developments typical of the various sections of the North, South, East, and West. The narrative is provided by a man, either having a job requiring some special skill or looking for one, perhaps accompanied by his wife and children, a different group for each section visited. The discussions are illustrated by about 150 excellent photographs captioned with explanatory notes, half or full-page size, furnished by outstanding corporations or commercial photo agencies. The latest developments are featured, at the same time giving some attention to evolutionary changes, and future betterments. The reader is impressed with the interdependence of the various parts of the country and the interrelations between industries and the farmer or other producer of raw materials, together with a wholesome respect for what technical knowledge and skill accomplishes, especially that of the chemist and engineer. A few references are made to certain advantages that

the region affords due to climate, topography, minerals, and surface waters.

The places visited afford glimpses of factories making such products as glass, steel, rayon, plastics, records, watches, shoes, movies. The contacts with people bring out such skills as those involved in blind flying, in testing and using specialized equipment. The recreational value of scenic landscapes or of great engineering works is another phase of the presentation. Altogether the book affords interesting supplementary material, suggestive of the kind almost any locality affords to the teacher or students who are willing to look for it.

CORA P. SLETTEN

State Teachers College
Mankato, Minnesota

America Begins Again. By Katherine Glover.
New York: McGraw Hill, 1939. Pp. xv, 382.
\$1.76.

Since the close of the first decade of the present century, the generally accepted date of the birth of the conservation movement, the United States has been moving along into a new phase of history. The nineteenth century was characterized by a westward movement motivated by the attraction of public lands and resources for the taking. Sometime during the first decade of the twentieth century a few leaders in resource economics began to realize that the day of free lands was gone and that care would have to be exercised to perpetuate many of our vital resources.

This feeling did not become general, however, until after the depression in the early years of this decade. Even then the significance of this new phase of our history was recognized only in certain governmental circles. By the middle of the decade the principles of resource conservation and regional planning for more effective resource use had become an accepted curricular feature in most colleges and universities, usually taught in the geography department.

Important as it would appear in the training of young citizens, conservation has been notoriously slow in securing a place in the secondary curriculum, chiefly because no acceptable text or reference books were available. In the late spring of 1939, however, this volume by Katherine Glover made its appearance. Coincident with its publication came the

realization that increasing numbers of social science, history, and geography teachers are being turned out who have been trained in varying degrees in the principles of modern conservation. The stage is finally set for the advance of a new social science responsibility—training in intelligent attitudes towards conservation of our basic natural resources.

America Begins Again is a significant attempt to present the principles of natural-resource conservation on a secondary school level. It is a pioneer work in that field and is a worthy monument to the conservation movement. With a wealth of exceptionally good photographs, an attractive format, and a writing style with enough of the dramatic and the picturesque to make interesting reading without resorting to sensationalism, the book should be popular with secondary school social studies teachers, or for general consumption among those who profess to be well read.

The preface clearly states the objectives of the book which are designated as (1) an effort to focus attention upon the great wealth of natural resources with which this country was originally endowed, (2) to show the waste to which they have been subjected, and (3) to indicate the grave responsibility we face now in building back the devastated soils and forests, restoring wild life, cleansing and protecting the waters, and guarding the mineral stores against further exhaustion and exploitation. The closing chapters deal with regional and applied conservation, with analyses of the planning features of the Tennessee Valley and the Pacific Northwest, including the Columbia Basin developments in the state of Washington.

To those interested in this new field in social studies Miss Glover's book comes in answer to a real need. It should enjoy a wide and favorable reception throughout the schools of the nation.

WILLIS B. MERRIAM

Eastern Washington College of Education
Cheney, Washington

Units in World History: Development of Modern Europe. Rev. ed. By John T. Greenan and J. Madison Gathany. New York: McGraw Hill, 1939. Pp. xxi, 858. \$2.32.

The text under consideration is a revision of the earlier text by the same authors. It is an organization of the materials of World

History built around a general unitary organization. There are nineteen units in the text and these units are grouped into four parts. Part I with six units carries the story from the time of beginnings to 1200 A.D., in 250 pages. Part II containing the next five units in 182 pages follows man's story to 1800 A.D. Part III contains four units, and is the story of modern times, to which approximately half the volume is devoted. Part IV is divided into four units and is a survey of some of the problems and characteristics of modern life. The major emphasis in this book is obviously on the modern period.

The authors claim that their text is strongly interpretative and not factual. This is true. They claim that it is simple in language and in organization, that it is properly balanced, that it leads to understandings of the origin and development of present-day institutions and that it helps students to do real thinking about present-day problems. The reviewer agrees that the authors have done a reasonably good job in keeping these objectives clearly in mind. The style of the book should be interesting to high school students. The explanations of how people lived, and what they thought, and the general direction civilization was taking at the various periods is quite clear.

The teaching aids are copious and on the whole good. The reading program is well selected and the choice is such that the inexperienced teacher can make a good selection in building a library to enrich learning. The illustrations are clear and well selected. Maps, graphs, and time charts are used to good advantage.

Some will feel that the early period is covered too briefly and incompletely. Some of this material is sketchily done. This is a necessity in a book that chooses to emphasize modern times.

It seems that this text could have been made more attractive. While we realize that sometimes books are "streamlined" to catch the eye of teachers and administrators, and the "frosting" sometimes has little teaching value, we must realize that learning goes on much more easily in an attractive surrounding.

The text will have to be rated as a good one. Teachers who are burdened with the heavy and extensive facts of history and have not been able to spend adequate time in show-

ing their students the great sweep of history, will find this text a real aid.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

Carrollton High School
Carrollton, Missouri

The Problem of Social Change. By Newell LeRoy Sims. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1939. Pp. viii, 477. \$3.50.

Since the dawn of civilization men have pondered the problem of social change, and in consequence all great languages now abound in an abundance of literature relating to every phase of this perennially challenging phenomenon. Yet this very multiplicity of available literature created the definite need for a "handbook of sufficient simplicity, breadth of scope, and scientific soundness to aid the student in the systematic organization of the data of social change." Such a handbook is here presented, and it is indeed a comprehensive work of special excellence. Although intended as a textbook for college seniors, it possesses marked value for the intelligent adult as well.

Professor Sims begins with an historical analysis of the concept of social change. Pointing out that savages under the tyranny of custom are of all men most conservative, he then elucidates various classical theories of social change including the lost-paradise doctrine of the Orient, the cyclical notion of most Greeks and Romans, and the Promethean ascent supposition of Hesiod and the Epicureans. After considering the medieval period during which belief in Providence dominated men's minds, attention turns to relatively modern times when the idea of indefinite social perfectibility was born. Then the identification of biological evolution with automatic social progress became almost an obsession until events of the last generation had produced an increasingly skeptical attitude toward the "upward and onward forever and ever" myth of progress.

Following an analysis of traditional, reformist, revolutionary and scientific attitudes toward social change, the author devotes the bulk of his volume to a descriptive digest and objective evaluation of the various theories of social change which today are accorded some merit. Here we find the social Darwinists, the eugenicists, the racial determinists from Tacitus to Chamberlin and Madison Grant, the geographic determinists from Buckle to Hunt-

ington, Marx's dialectical materialism, Ward's collective telesis, Veblen's technological determinism, Weber's ethico-religious interpretation, Giddings' genetic-telic synthesis, Ellwood's psycho-social emphasis, Ogburn's cultural lag, Spengler's, Pareto's and Sorokin's cyclical patterns, the rainfall theories of Jevons and Moore, the over-production-under-consumption thesis of J. A. Hobson, the revolutionary analyses of Lenin, Mussolini, and Hitler. Aristotle and Aquinas, Machiavelli and Hegel, Thurman Arnold and Franz Boas, John Dewey and the Webbs—all are here, and a host of others.

Yet the volume is far more than a succinct cataloging of divergent theories; it is also a splendidly objective interpretation of those viewpoints presented according to a pattern of organization which provides for the book an essential and surprising unity. The style is scholarly throughout but never dull; not even when tedious writings themselves are under consideration does the reader feel their original jejuneness. But since Professor Sims has almost nowhere directly quoted the authors whose theories he analyzes, one wonders if an equally brief and competently constructed source book would not contribute much to the reader's interest and comprehension. "Why don't you speak for yourself, John?" seems as appropriate a challenge in sociology as it is in romance.

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Colgate University

A Charter for Progressive Education. By Lester Dix. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. 107. \$1.60.

"Man may continue to be a rational or perhaps aesthetic creature only if his primordial functions continue to operate healthfully and evenly. Thus it becomes a waste of time to belabor a child with long division if he is ill, hungry, fearful, angry, or feels himself to be rejected by a parent, or even by the teacher who is trying to administer the long division to him."

This quotation from Dr Dix's book strikes the reviewer as a proper foundation for a charter for Progressive Education. Progressive Education has reinterpreted earlier doctrines in the light of twentieth century industrialism

and universal literacy. Successively Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Herbart have raised new voices to express old ideas in protest against the lazy, static, smugly-regimented order which was called American education. The rediscovery of the relationship between the individual and the community which the depression years have forced has brought Progressive Education to the rediscovery of Froebel's classic judgment: "No community can progress in its development whilst the individual, who is a member of it remains behind; the individual, who is a member of the whole body, cannot progress in his development while the community remains behind."

The new psychology which Dr Dix outlines in Chapter III is well summarized—and entirely new to most readers of *Social Education*. At the risk of preaching it is perhaps fair to say that "A Modern Conception of Learning" which is outlined in this chapter is the most crying need which teachers of the social studies have today.

In a book where every page encourages challenging comment only a few high points can be noted. The insistence that "means and ends can not be separated and democratic citizens can be developed only by democratic educational methods," that "the secondary school must deliver to society a person who is adult in all respects," and many other concepts are developed. We have accepted these concepts in principle but here failed to implement them by allowing practice in living.

A Plan for the Emerging Curriculum (chapter vii), and A Plan for Curriculum Building and Teaching (chapter viii) are stimulating and so well organized that even the conventionally minded who have cultivated a habit of willfully becoming confused will have trouble. The greatest adventure in the book is the chapter on scheduling a modern program. In suggesting a program which would expand the community to include city and country, in which city children would attend a rural school for part of their educational experience, and country children would attend an urban school, in which the hours of sunlight in mid-day would be devoted to out-of-door activity, and which would depart from the traditional school year, which was geared to farm work where children were needed in summer, Dr Dix has become an educational inventor. He has not

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only stated that the schedule is a means to an end—that of providing varied educational experiences for boys and girls—rather than the end in itself which most high school principals now believe it to be; he has given examples which other principals may multiply in their communities.

The task of formulating a charter for Progressive Education is a large one. Dr Dix has shown great courage in attempting the task. I am sure that he regards the book as a tentative draft. If professionally minded teachers could read his book and talk with him from the varied corners which make up America, some of which he has touched in mentioning the 4H clubs and the CCC, a fuller charter with changes in emphasis would emerge. His challenge to secondary school teachers to be their own men rather than wards of teacher colleges should receive a hearty response.

HOWARD CUMMINGS

Clayton High School
Clayton, Missouri

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